

A GRAMMAR
OF THE
ENGLISH LANGUAGE:

TOGETHER WITH AN EXPOSITION OF
THE ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.

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PREFACE.



Now that above one hundred thousand of this Grammar have been printed and sold, I have taken the occasion offered by the recasting of the stereotype plates to make some important alterations and improvements. Many additional hints and elucidations will be found scattered throughout the body of the work, which it is hoped will add materially to its completeness.

The Appendix, on the pronunciation of the various letters, has been altogether omitted, as being practically useless. The right pronunciation of every language must after all depend more upon habit and example than anything else, and hardly requires to be inculcated theoretically.

In place of this, I have appended an entirely new part, on English Ver-ification, or, as it is generally termed, Prosody. This has been reprinted from the Appendix of the 'Poetical Reading Book,' jointly compiled by myself and Dr. IHNE, late of Liverpool.

As great care was taken to adapt this book to the requirements of teachers using the Grammar, and special marks invented for indicating the correct analysis of the poetical extracts contained in it, I take the present opportunity of recommending it to the attention of all the higher classes of schools in the country. The 'Poetical Reading Book' was originally compiled for Mr. JAS. GORDON, of Edinburgh, and is now the property of Messrs. OLIVER & BOYD, through whose courtesy I have made the present use of the Appendix.

J. D. MORELL.

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GRAMMAR

OF

THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

INTRODUCTION.

MAN is chiefly distinguished from the rest of the creation around him, by being able to *think* and to *speak*.

When we speak, we use Language.

Language may be defined as '*The expression of our thoughts by signs, whether spoken or written.*'

The study of Language, with a view of showing the laws and principles by which it is guided, forms a science, which we call GRAMMAR.

All language is composed of sentences; sentences are made up of words; and words, when written down, are composed of letters.

To show, therefore, how a language is built up from its simplest elements, the science of Grammar will comprehend three principal parts:—

1. The knowledge of the *letters*—their proper sounds—and the way in which they are combined, so as to form words.
2. The knowledge of all the different *kinds* of words—their powers, inflexions, and structure.
3. The knowledge of the proper methods by which words are combined so as to express our thoughts in correct *sentences*.

The first of these is called Orthography; the second, Etymology; and the third, Syntax.

ORTHOGRAPHY.

PART II. OF ORTHOGRAPHY.

1. The Alphabet.

The letters used in the English language are twenty-six. They are printed in two different forms, called 'Capital letters and Small letters.

CAPITAL LETTERS.

A B C D E F G H I J K L M N O P Q R S
T U V W X Y Z.

SMALL LETTERS.

a b c d e f g h i j k l m n o p q r s t u v w x y z

The whole system of letters is called the *Alphabet* (from Alpha, Beta, the names of the first two Greek letters). G

2. The Vowels.

Of the above twenty-six letters, five have open sounds, viz., *a, e, i, o, u*. These are called *Vowels* (Latin, *vocalis*). But in addition to these, *w* and *y* are also used as pure vowels in some particular cases; and in all other instances are *semi-vowels*.

Thus in the words *blow* and *by*, the *w* and *y* are pure vowels. In the words *yet* and *wet*, they are semi-vowels, because the *y* is nearly equivalent to *ē*, and the *w* to *oo*. *Yet* might be spelt according to sound, *ȳet*, and *wet* might be spelt *ooet*.

3. The Consonants.

The remaining nineteen letters can be properly sounded only in conjunction with a vowel. They are therefore termed *Consonants* (Latin, *con*, together; *sonans*, sounding).

Amongst the consonants, there are four which combine very easily with most of the other letters, viz. *l*, *m*, *n*, and *r*. They have been therefore termed *Liquids*.

Of the remaining fifteen letters, five cannot be sounded in any degree *alone*, i. e. without putting a vowel either before or after them, viz. *b*, *d*, *k*, *p*, and *t*; and other five can be pronounced apart from a vowel, only in a very indistinct manner, viz. *f*, *g*, *s*, *v*, and *z*. These ten letters have accordingly been termed *Mutes*.

Another distinction has been made between *sharp* and *flat* mutes; each flat mute having a sharp one related to it. Thus—

Flat.		Sharp.
b	is related to	p
v	f

We have now five letters left, which have not been included either amongst vowels, liquids, or mutes; these are *c*, *h*, *j*, *q*, and *x*.

Of these five, *h* is simply a *breathing*, not possessing any full articulate sound. It is called on this account *the aspirate*.

C, *q*, and *j* are redundant letters, having exactly the same sounds as *k*, *s*, and *g*.

Thus *cat* could, as far as sound goes, be equally written *kut*: and *city* as *sity*. *Q* is only used with *u* coming immediately after it, and this combination is exactly equivalent to *koo*. Thus *quality*, as far as sound goes, might be written *kooality*. • *J* has precisely the same sound as *g* in *ginger*.

Lastly, *x* is a double letter, being equivalent to *ks*.

The whole system of letters may be thus represented in a tabular form:—

Vowels.		Liquids.		Mutes.		Aspirate.	Redundant.
full.	semi.			flat.	sharp.		
a	w	l	b	related to	p	h	c
e	y	m	v	f		j
i		n	z	s		q
o		r	d	t		Double consonant
u			g	k		x

The mutes have also been classified according to the organs by which they are pronounced. Thus—

{ B and P V and F }	have been termed	labials, or lip-letters.
{ D and T Z and S }	•.....	dentals, or tooth-letters.
{ C and K }	•.....	gutturals, or throat-letters.*

4. Double Letters.

1. If two vowels are sounded together, they form what is called a *diphthong* (Greek, *di*, twofold; *phthongē*, vowel sound).

Most of the diphthongs have the same sound as some of the simple vowels; as *ea* in *pear*, *ai* in *pail*, *oi* in *toe*, *ui* in *jure*, &c. The following, however, form a peculiar sound of their own —

<i>ay</i>	as in aye.	..
<i>oi</i> and <i>oy</i>	... boy	
<i>ou</i> and <i>ow</i>	... loud, now.	

To them we may add *au* and *aw*, as having the broad sound of the *a* in *call*, *fall*. *Æ* and *œ* are also diphthongs, but are only used in words adopted from Latin and Greek, as *Cæsar*, *Phœbus*.

2. The double consonants, which have a peculiar sound of their own, are—

<i>Ch</i>	when sounded as in	church.
<i>sh</i>	„ „	ship.
<i>ng</i>	„ „	sing, long.

Th has two sounds, one sharp as in *three*, the other flat as in *this*.

These two sounds had distinct characters in the Anglo-Saxon language, viz. *þ* for the sharp *th* and *ð* for the flat *th*.

Wh is properly pronounced as *hoo*. Thus, *which* ought to be pronounced *hooich*, though the aspirate is very commonly left out in England.

5. Of Syllables.

A word, or portion of a word, that is pronounced by one single effort of the voice, is called a *syllable* (Greek, *syllabē*, a taking together).

A word of one syllable only is called a monosyllable; a word of two syllables is called a dissyllable; of three, a trisyllable; of more than three, a polysyllable.

Division of Syllables.

1. The *general rule* for dividing words into syllables is, that each separate syllable should, as far as possible, *begin* with a consonant, as in the word in-com-pre-hen-si-ble.

2. The *special rules* for the division of syllables are—

1. If two consonants come together between two vowels, they should be divided, as bal-lot, cur-tain.

2. If two vowels, not forming a diphthong, come together, they must be divided, as in la-i-ty.

3. When an ordinary affix, such as *ate*, or a grammatical inflexion such as *er*, *est*, is added to a word, it forms a separate syllable though beginning with a vowel, as, indetermin-ate, lov-er, lov-est.

Exception 1. Two consonants, forming one combined sound, cannot be divided, though standing between two vowels. We do not write tab-le, but ta-ble.

Exception 2. The rules for dividing syllables must be regarded as *subordinate* to Etymological propriety. Thus we should not write righ-teous, but right-eous.

6. Large and Small Letters. -

Capital letters should be employed at the beginning of—

1. Every sentence, as, Wise men are happy.
2. Every proper name, whether noun or adjective, as, England, English.
3. Every direct quotation, when the quotation is a complete sentence in itself; as, 'Shakspeare says, "All the world's a stage"'
4. The names of months, weeks, days, &c, as July, Whit-week, Monday.

In addition to this, a capital letter is always used for the pronoun *I*, and the interjection *O*, and, in writing poetry, is used to commence every line.

7. Doubling, Changing, and Omission of Letters.

1. When a syllable such as *ing*, *ed*, or *er* has to be *added* to a word ending with a consonant, the consonant is frequently doubled, as rob, robber, expel, expelled. The general rule for this doubling is, that it must take place whenever an *accented* syllable precedes it. Thus we say confer, conferred, but offer, offered, because in the first instance the syllable *fer* is accented, and in the last *not*. Monosyllables are equivalent to accented syllables, and always require the doubling of the final consonant.

Exceptions. The letters *l* and *s* are generally doubled even when the preceding syllable is *not* accented, as travel, traveller.

2. When a syllable is added to a word ending in *y*, the *y* is

generally changed into *i*; as, silly, sillier. The cases in which it is not changed are those in which a consonant precedes the final *y*; as, shy, shyer.

The converse of this rule is, that when the termination *ing* is added to a word ending in *ie*, the *i* is changed into *y*, and the *e* omitted; as, die, dying.

3. Mute *e* at the end of a word is *generally* omitted if a syllable beginning with a vowel is added; as, love, loving. It is *sometimes* omitted when the syllable added begins with a consonant; as, judge, judgment; but the cases are rare, and only occur when the syllable preceding the increment is short.

Mute *e* at the end of a word preceded by a vowel is sometimes omitted and sometimes retained without any apparent reason beyond usage; as, true, truly; blue, blueness.

PART II. OF ETYMOLOGY.

Etymology treats of words individually considered.

To understand words aright, there are three things to be considered and explained:—

1. The due classification of all the different *kinds* of words of which a language consists.
2. The different changes and inflexions to which the words are subject.
3. The structure of words; or the manner in which they are formed, whether it be from simpler roots in the same language, or from foreign sources.

CHAPTER I.—CLASSIFICATION OF WORDS.

Words are divided into eight classes, called Parts of Speech:—

- | | |
|-------------------|----------------------|
| 1. The Noun. | 5. The Adverb. |
| 2. The Adjective. | 6. The Preposition. |
| 3. The Pronoun. | 7. The Conjunction. |
| 4. The Verb. | 8. The Interjection. |

The ground of this classification will be better explained after the nature and characteristics of each part of speech have been duly considered.

THE NOUN.

A NOUN is the name of anything.

Explanation.—1. The sensible objects which we see, hear, and feel around us, are those which naturally first strike our attention. The child, after he has observed the same persons or things (e. g. the nurse, the mother, the cradle) many times, at length makes a *sign of recognition* whenever they attract his attention. After a while, the same sign is made to indicate the recollection or *idea* of the thing, when it is not present. Such a sign, as soon as it becomes an articulate word, is called the *NAME* of the thing. In grammar, all such names are called *NOUNS*.

2. Thus, when a particular name is given to a particular thing, we see an example of the *simplest form* of the noun, and the first which the infant mind begins to employ. This is what we now term, the *Proper Noun*.

3. As our observation extends, and the things which attract our attention are multiplied, it becomes impossible to have a separate name for every individual thing. Hence the name, which was at first given to one individual, is made to stand for other persons or things *like it*, and thus becomes a name common to them all—i. e. a *Common Noun*.

4. But again, it is not merely substances (i. e. things which have a real independent existence of their own) which present themselves to our senses; we perceive also their different attributes separately. For example, we not only see what we term the snow itself, but we perceive also the white colour; and we not only see the grass, but we perceive the green colour. *Abstracting*, therefore, in thought, such attributes from the things to which they belong, and contemplating them as though they were separate existences, we give them distinctive names, such as *whiteness, greenness, &c.* All such names we call *Abstract Nouns*.^{*} Hence

Nouns may be divided into three classes, Proper, Common, and Abstract.

I. *A Proper Noun is the name of any individual person or thing; as, London, Nero, James.*

1. It might be supposed that words like James, John, &c., are common nouns, since they are used to designate a great many individuals. It must be observed, however, that they are never used *for a class*, but only to designate one single individual at a time. They are always *employed*, therefore, as proper names.

2. When an individual person or thing stands prominently out as the type of a class, it forms a kind of transition between the proper and the common noun. Thus we say, He is a *Hercules*. In the same manner we speak of a Demosthenes, a Shakspeare, a Howard.

3. Family names may also be regarded as proper names, with a tendency to become common. Thus we speak of the Caesars, the Georges, the Thomsons.

4. The names of works of art are also proper nouns, with a certain element of the common noun infused into them as, This is a Madonna, that is a Raphael.

II. *A Common Noun is a name given in common to everything of the same kind; as, Dog, Tree, Flower.*

Every common noun, accordingly, expresses a *general*, and not a *particular* idea. By putting a word before it, however, to point out which particular

^{*} We may form abstract nouns not only of phenomena which appeal to the senses, but of qualities, actions, and states of being, which can only be grasped by the understanding, as *virtue, hypocrisy, slavery, &c.* The same process of abstraction, when carried out still further, gives rise to those extremely general ideas, which we indicate by such words as *number, space, time, magnitude, &c.* In every case, however, the thing to which the name is given is regarded as *though it had an independent existence of its own*, and on that account the noun has been called a *Substantive*.

individual of the kind we are referring to at the moment, any *common noun* obtains the force of a *proper* one. Thus, *sun* is a common noun. *The sun* is equivalent to a proper noun. So also, *this book*, *my father*.

Common nouns admit of various distinctions, according as the separate individuals, of which any class consists, are more or less definitely implied in the common name. They may be included, with sufficient completeness, under the following four varieties:—

1. **Class Names.**—These are nouns, which can be used to designate any single individual of which a class consists. Thus the word *lion* will apply equally well to each individual lion, and *house* to each individual house.

We often designate the same thing by names of different degrees of generality. Thus, we may call the same bird either an Eagle or an Animal. The more *general* words are called 'generic' terms; the less general are called 'specific' (from *genus* and *species*). The word *thing* may be looked upon as expressing the highest generality, and as being the universal type of the common noun.

2. **Collective Names.**—These are nouns which only denote a number of individuals when *united together*, so as to form one whole; as, *army*, *cavalry*, *flock*.

Remark.—An ordinary class name, such as *man*, is sometimes taken collectively for the whole class—as when we say, *Man is mortal*. This expression is exactly equivalent to the phrase, *All men are mortal*.

3. **Names of Materials.**—These are nouns which denote substances, which are not made up of individual parts; as, *milk*, *sugar*, *gold*, *clay*, &c.

4. **Names of Numbers, Measures, Weights, &c.**; as, *a dozen*, *a bushel*, *a pound*.*

III. *An Abstract Noun is the name of anything, which we only conceive of in our minds as having a real independent existence; as, wisdom, sleep, whiteness.*

Explanation.—Wisdom cannot exist apart from a person who is wise, nor whiteness apart from a thing which is white. But we *conceive* of the general

* Of the above nouns, some are recognised as belonging to a given class by the senses. Thus we know that a *knife* belongs to a class of instruments to which we apply this term, by merely looking at it. Many nouns, however, belong to a class which can only be recognised by a higher exercise of thought. Thus the word *conqueror* implies something more than a *perception*; it implies that we attribute to the person in question a certain *quality*, which can only be realised by a further process of thinking.

quality of wisdom, or of whiteness, apart from any particular person or thing; and give it a name, as though it acquired by this means a real and separate existence of its own.

Some abstract nouns are based upon sensible phenomena, as, *blackness, flight*; while others have no existence except in *thought*; as, *humility, candour*.

Abstract nouns exhibit several varieties, which may be conveniently classified as follows:—

1. Names of Qualities, whether relating to material objects, or to the mind, or to both; as, *colour, magnitude, youth, bravery, beauty, &c.*

2. Names of Actions; as, *march, step, flight*.

Most actions are designated by the participial form of the verb; as *Sailing* is pleasant; *Hunting* is good exercise. These are termed verbal nouns. The infinitive mood also of the verb is really an abstract noun, denoting action; as, *to sail* is agreeable; *to hunt* is pleasant.

3. Names of States or Conditions, either of mind or body, or of things in general; as, *sickness, health, warmth, &c.*

States or periods of the year, day, week, &c., may be regarded as belonging to this class; as, *summer, winter, twilight, night, darkness*.

Nouns which have some real existence, or class of existences, answering to them, are said to be *concrete*; those which are formed entirely by the mind, without having any *substantial* existence, are termed *abstract*.

Table of Nouns.

Nouns are	I. Proper,	1. Strictly so called, .	Hannibal.
		2. In transition state, .	a Hercules.
	II. Common,	1. Class names, { sensible,	Knife.
		{ rational,	Conqueror.
		2. Collective names, .	Flock.
		3. Names of materials,	Snow.
	III. Abstract,	4. Names of measures, &c.,	Pound.
		1. Names of qualities,	Goodness.
		2. Names of actions, .	Flight.
		3. Names of states, .	Sleep.

THE ADJECTIVE.

An ADJECTIVE is a word added to a noun, in order to mark or distinguish it more accurately.

Explanation.—The common noun, as we have shown, applies to every thing of the same class or kind. Amongst the individual objects, however, which such a name denotes, there will be numerous *differences* as well as a general *resemblance*. If, then, we put a mark or sign to denote some difference between one object and another of the same kind, such a mark or sign forms the

office of an *Adjective*. Thus, taking the common noun *dog* to denote the whole canine race, we next observe that there are many *kinds* of dogs; some large, some small, some white, some black, &c. To express these *differences* we employ a particular class of words. These words are *Adjectives*.

But we may require to distinguish a thing, moreover, not only in relation to its *kind* or *quality*; we may also require to distinguish it in reference to *quantity*. Thus taking the word *corn*, I may require to express that the word, as I now use it, means a great deal of corn, or a very little of it. To do this we employ adjectives of *quantity*.

Or we may require, thirdly, to distinguish a thing *still more generally*—i. e. merely to *point it out* from the rest of its kind. To do this we must employ *distinguishing* adjectives, as, *this, that, the*.

Thus, in whatever way we wish to mark or distinguish a thing we can only do so by joining some distinguishing word—i. e. *some adjective* to the name. According to these explanations,

Adjectives may be divided into three classes—

I. Adjectives denoting QUALITY.

By the quality of a thing, we mean any distinguishing feature which it possesses, as, a *large* house, a *good* man.

Various kinds of qualities may be enumerated. Thus we have—

1. Qualities which come directly under the cognisance of the senses; as, *white* snow, *flowing* water.

2. Qualities which we can affirm of any thing only as compared with other things; as, a *large* book, a *short* cord. *Large* and *short* are here comparative terms.

3. Qualities which express a relation that any given object holds to ourselves or others, as, a *monthly* journal, a *consolatory* letter.*

II. Adjectives denoting QUANTITY.

Under the word *quantity* we include all numeral adjectives, as well as those which denote magnitude *as applied to materials*; as, *much* corn, *little* water.

If adjectives of magnitude refer to distinct individuals; as, *great* lion, *small* child, they indicate *quality* rather than *quantity*.

Among adjectives denoting quantity we may distinguish four classes—

1. Definite numeral adjectives, i. e. those which denote some exact number; as, *twenty* men.

Numbers are either cardinal or ordinal.

Cardinal numbers denote how many; as, *one, two, three, fifty, &c.*

* It may be remarked generally concerning the adjective, that its signification is not so *definite* as that of the noun, but only becomes so by its union with the object we wish it to qualify. Thus we may speak of *clear* water, a *clear* head, a *clear* day, a *clear* stage, a *clear* table, &c., in which cases the signification of the word *clear* is determined, to a large extent, by the word which it qualifies.

Ordinal numbers denote the place which anything holds in a series; as, *first, second, third, &c.*

Among definite numerals we may also class *none* and *both*.

2. Indefinite numeral adjectives, or those which do not denote any exact number; as, *some* men.

The principal of these are—*All, any, some, many, few, other, another, several, certain, divers.*

3. Distributive numeral adjectives, or those which point out a number of objects individually; as, *every* boy.

The principal of these are—*Each, every, either, neither.*

4. Adjectives denoting quantity as applied to materials; as, *some* hay.

The principal of these are—*Much, little, some, any.*

III. DISTINGUISHING adjectives; as, *the* man, *this* house.

The least definite kind of distinction is when we simply point out indifferently *any one* of a class. This is done by *a* or *an* (*a* before a consonant, *an* before a vowel).

If we want to point out some *particular* thing of which we are thinking and speaking, we usually employ the word *the*.

Thirdly, If we want to point out something actually present, we employ the words *this* or *that*.*

Remarks.—1. The participial forms of the verb are often employed as adjectives; as, a *growing* boy, a *hunted* hare.

2. One noun standing before another is often employed as an adjective; as, an *iron* door, a *hospital* nurse.

3. Adjectives are often used elliptically as nouns. Thus we can say, *I have a few. He has many. John has none. We require both.* Ordinary qualitative adjectives are also changed into nouns by prefixing the definite article; as, *The wise* are happy. *The wicked* are not so.

Table of Adjectives.

denote,	I. Quality,	1. Sensible,	White.
		2. Comparative,	Long.
		3. Relational,	Pleasant.
Adje.	II. Quantity,	1. Definite numeral adjective, .	Twenty.
		2. Indefinite numeral adjective, .	Some.
		3. Distributive numeral adjective,	Each.
		4. Quantity as applied to measure,	Much.
	III. Distinction,		{ A, the.
			{ This.
			{ That.

* *A* and *an* have been usually termed the indefinite article, and *the* the definite article. *A* or *an* is the same word originally as *one*, and *the* is an abbreviation of *that*. Hence their etymology as well as their use show them to be really adjectives.

THE PRONOUN.

A PRONOUN is a word that is used instead of a noun; as, John is not here, *he* went home yesterday.

The principal use of the pronoun is to prevent the ~~repetition~~ repetition of the noun in the same sentence.

Pronouns are either *simple* or *compound*.

Simple Pronouns may be classified under the following three heads: 1. Personal; 2. Relative; 3. Interrogative.

I. Personal Pronouns.

Personal Pronouns are simple substitutes for the names of persons and things.

The whole of the Personal Pronouns in their simple form may be thus represented—

	First Person.	Second Person.	Third Person.	Indef.
<i>Singular,</i>	I	Thou	He, she, it,	
<i>Plural,</i>	We	Ye or you	They	One.

I, thou, he, she, we, ye or you, and one, are always used as substitutes for the names of persons. *They* may be used either for the names of persons or things. *It* is only used for things.

If a pronoun is used to denote the person or persons *speaking*, it is said to be of the first person; if used to denote the person or persons *spoken to*, it is said to be of the second person; if used to denote the person or persons *spoken of*, it is said to be of the third person. Thus, *I* and *we* are of the first person; *thou, ye, and you*, of the second; *he, she, it, and they*, of the third. *One* is used indefinitely for *any person*.

Every personal pronoun has what is called a *possessive* pronoun answering to it, which is joined to a noun in the same way as an adjective.

	First Person.	Second Person.	Third Person.	Indef.
<i>Personal,</i>	I, we,	Thou, Ye or you,	He, she, it, they,	One.
<i>Possessive, ...</i>	My, our,	Thy, Your,	His, her, its, their,	One's.

Remark.—The original form of the possessive pronouns *my* and *thy* was *mine* and *thine* (as in the German *mein, dein*). The shorter forms *my* and *thy*

were afterwards adopted, and are now always used before the noun. *Mine* and *thine*, like *yours*, *hers*, *theirs*, *ours*, are now used *after* the verb, with the noun omitted; as, This is mine, thine, hers, yours, theirs, ours.

These, we shall show hereafter, are simply a particular form of the possessive case of the personal pronouns.

The word *one*, when used as in the phrase, '*One* hardly knows how,' is a kind of indefinite personal pronoun. It is quite distinct from the numeral adjective *one*, being derived from the French *on*.

The adjective *one* is used also as a pronoun both singular and plural, in expressions like the following:—This is a good *one*, and those are bad *ones*.

II. Relative Pronouns.

Relative Pronouns are those which, in addition to being substitutes for the names of persons or things, also join and relate one sentence to another; as, I have seen the house, *which* you inhabit.

These pronouns are called *Relative* because they *relate* to something which has gone before in the sentence, and *bring it back* in order to be the subject of some further remark. The word to which they relate is called the *antecedent*.

There are, properly speaking, three relative pronouns in the English language—*who*, *which*, and *that*.

Who is used when the antecedent is a person, and *which* when the antecedent is a thing. *That* is used frequently in the place of both, and prevents their too frequent repetition.

That cannot be used for *who* in every case. If the antecedent be a proper noun, or even a common noun *perfectly defined*, it is inadmissible. We cannot say, My son *that* sailed yesterday; or, John *that* came home at 12 o'clock. Wherever *that* is employed, the relative clause must be, to some extent, explanatory.

'*What*' was originally a simple relative of the neuter gender, but is now only used for *that which*, thus combining both antecedent and relative in itself. Hence it is sometimes called the Compound Relative.

Besides these, the particle *as* is employed with the force of a relative pronoun, but must always have some *correlative* word like *such*, *so many*, *the same*, &c., as its antecedent, as, *such stuff as* dreams are made of; he took *as many as* he could carry.

III. Interrogative Pronouns.

Interrogative pronouns are those which are used in asking questions; as,

Who told you?

Which do you choose?

What do you want?

This is probably an elliptical expression, the original phrase being of this kind—

Mention to me the person, who told you.

Tell me, what you want.

Hence the interrogative pronouns have taken the same form as the relative.

Who is used when you expect the answer to be a person; *what* is used when you expect the answer to be a thing; *which* is used interrogatively both for persons and things, when the answer is required to point out anything *definitely*.

Who told you? means *what person* told you?

What have you found? means *what thing* have you found?

Which did you like best? means *which individual person or thing* do you point out as having the preference?

COMPOUND PRONOUNS.

The expressions *Self*, *Own*, and *Ever*, are frequently added to several of the other pronouns, and thus give rise to various compound forms.

Self, with its plural *selves*, is united to all the personal pronouns to make the person of the pronouns more *emphatic*; as, *myself*, *ourselves*, *himself*, *itself*, *one's-self*, &c.

It should be observed that *self* is always joined to the possessive case of the first and second personal pronouns, and to the objective case of the third. Thus we say, *myself* and *thyself*; but *himself* and *themselves*.

Remark.—*Self* and *selves* may also be used substantively with the possessive case of a noun; as, *A man's self*. This is, however, a comparatively modern usage.

The word *Own* is a purely possessive form, being only united to possessive pronouns, and always giving them a more emphatic possessive meaning; as, *my own*, *your own*, *his own*, *their own*, &c.

Ever is only united to the relative pronouns, and gives them a more wide and universal signification; as, *whichever*, *whatever*.

One is also used in combination with *any*, *every*, *some*, *no*, &c., as an indefinite personal pronoun; as, *any one*, *some one*, *no one*, &c.

Remarks.—The demonstrative adjectives, *this* and *that*; the indefinite adjectives, *some*, *any*; and the distributive adjectives, *either*, *neither*, are frequently used as pronouns; as,

This is the best. *That* is the worst.

Some were left, but I did not take *any*.

Either will do, but I require *neither*.

When so used, they are sometimes termed demonstrative, indefinite, and distributive pronouns.*

* None of these words are originally pronominal in their nature, but only become so by usage. There is no more reason that they should be classified under the head of pronouns than there would be to classify any other adjectives under the head of nouns; because we can use expressions like this, 'The wise are happy.'

Closely allied to the relative and the demonstrative pronouns are the expressions *whereby*, *whereto*, *whereat*, &c., which are equivalent to *by which*, *to which*, *at which*, &c. These are, however, now generally classified amongst the adverbs and conjunctions.

Table of Pronouns.

		1st Per. I, we.
Pronouns are,	A. Simple.	I. Personal, . 3d Per. He, she, it, they. Indefinite, one.
		II. Relative, . { Who, Which, That.
		III. Interrogative, { Who? What? Which?
	B. Compound.	I. Personal, . { Myself, Thyself, One's-self, &c.
		II. Possessive, { My own, Thy own, One's own, &c.
		III. Relative, . { What, Whoever, Whichever, Whatever.

THE VERB.

The VERB is a word by means of which we affirm—1. *What anything does*; 2. *What is done to it*; or, 3. *In what state it exists*; as, the cow eats; the child is hurt; the girl sleeps.

Explanation.—The fundamental and essential idea of the Verb is that of *telling or asserting*. Hence it forms the middle point or pivot of every sentence. The simplest form of assertion is seen in the verb *to be*, which possesses merely the assertive power, without containing in it any other notion. Thus in the sentence, *Man is mortal*, the two notions brought together are *man* and *mortal*, while the verb '*is*' simply connects them, so that one is affirmed of the other.

All verbs may be divided into two great classes: First, those which imply an action passing over to some object, called **Transitive Verbs**; Secondly, those which imply some state or action, in which no object is involved, called **Intransitive**.

I. TRANSITIVE VERBS.

When the action expressed by the verb does not terminate in the agent, but requires, for its complete explanation, that the object should be stated, the verb is called *Transitive*; as, David killed [Goliath].

As transitive verbs express actions, there must always be joined to them the name of some person or thing, that does or suffers the action. This is called the *subject* of the verb; as, *The wind* broke the tree.

1. When we wish to make the agent, together with the action he performs, the prominent idea, we employ what is termed the *Active Voice*; as, *William defeated Harold*.

2. But when we wish to make the object, and the manner in which it is affected, the prominent ideas, we employ what is termed the *Passive Voice*; as, *Harold was defeated by William*.

Thus, when the subject of the verb is the doer of the action, the verb is active; but when the subject of the verb is the object acted upon, the verb is passive.

3. But thirdly, there is another way of employing the transitive verb, in which we do not express precisely the doing of an action by an agent, nor the suffering of an action by an object, but a middle idea between the two. This, therefore, we may term the *Middle Voice*.

- | | |
|--------------------------------|----------|
| e. g. 1. John moves the table, | Active. |
| 2. The table is moved by John, | Passive. |
| 3. The table moves, | Middle. |

In the same way we say, *Honey tastes* sweet; this sentence *does not read* well; this horse *drives* badly in harness; the church *opens* at 11 o'clock; my new house *is building*, &c.

Observation.—The ordinary neuter verb, such as, *I sleep*, would come under the head of Middle Voice, so far as it expresses a relation of agent and object intermediate between the active and the passive verb; but the term Middle Voice should not be applied to any verb which has not also an active and a passive form. Neuter verbs, implying simply states of being, are more naturally arranged in another place.

Verbs which take two objects in the active voice, one of the person and the other of the thing, can be put into the passive voice, with the person as the subject and the thing as the object; as,

John taught Charles geography.

Charles was taught geography by John.

Here, to teach-geography is treated as though it were a single verb, used first in its active, and secondly in its passive form.

II. INTRANSITIVE VERBS.

When the action of the verb is complete in itself, and does not require that any object be stated or implied, the verb is called Intransitive; as, Birds fly.

Three varieties of the intransitive verb may be enumerated:—

1. Those which imply an active state; as, Horses run.
2. Those which imply an inactive state; as, The child sleeps.
3. Those which imply a change of state; as, The child wakes.

These may be termed, 1. Active intransitive verbs; 2. Neuter intransitive; 3. Inceptives.

Remark.—Many verbs are used both in a *transitive* and *intransitive* way.

Besides the two great classes of verbs already enumerated, there are two minor varieties that should be mentioned;—these are Impersonal Verbs and Auxiliaries.

1. *An Impersonal Verb is one in which the subject is altogether wanting, and its place supplied by the neuter pronoun it; as, It snows, it strikes me, &c.*

2. *An Auxiliary Verb is one which aids in forming the voices, moods, or tenses of other principal verbs; as, Dogs have barked, will bark, can bark, &c.**

Remarks.—Verbs can easily be detected by the young scholar, by his putting *I, thou, or he* before the word, and seeing thus whether it can express an action which any one might do or suffer, or a state of being in which anything might exist.

The participial forms in *ing* and *ed*, and the infinitive prece led by *to*, must be excepted from the explanation of the verb as being a word that conveys an assertion. The two former are simply verbs used like an adjective, and the latter is the verb used as a noun. Thus we say, A *loving* child; a *loved* parent; *to love* our enemies is a Christian duty.

Table of Verbs.

Verbs are	I. Transitive,	1. Active Voice, I move (something).
		2. Passive Voice, I am moved.
		3. Middle Voice, I move.
	II. Intransitive,	1. Active Intransitive, I run.
		2. Neuter Intransitive, I lie.
		3. Inceptive, . . . I wake.

* Of these we shall treat more particularly in the second chapter of Etymology

THE ADVERB.

An ADVERB is a word which is used to qualify any attribute; as, Caesar wrote *well*, he was also *very* prudent.

Explanation.—All our notions, as expressed in words, may be divided into two main classes:—1. Notions of things themselves (whether concrete or abstract); and, 2. Notions of qualities or actions which we *attribute* to them.

When we express our notion of a *thing*, we employ the noun; when we attribute any *action* or *quality* to the noun, we employ the verb or the adjective. Every sentence must consist fundamentally of these two portions,—the noun and the attribute; the noun expressing the thing which we speak about, the attribute expressing what we have to say or affirm respecting it.

Just in the same way as we qualify the *noun* or *name* by placing an adjective by the side of it, so we qualify any word that expresses an *attribute* by connecting an adverb with it. Moreover, as the adverb itself expresses an *attribute* of the verb or adjective, we may use one adverb to qualify another.

Accordingly, the adverb qualifies three parts of speech,—

1. The adjective, i. e. The simple attribute.
2. The verb, i. e. The attribute with assertion combined.
3. The adverb, i. e. The attribute of another attribute.

The principal noun in the sentence is always the *subject* of the verb; and the principal attribute to that noun is always involved in the *predicate*. Hence, (1) The *chief* use of the adverb is to qualify the principal verb in a sentence, and, through that, to modify the sentence itself. (2) The next use of the adverb is to qualify a primary or a secondary attribute (adjective and adverb) independently of any assertion.

With regard to the first of these uses, we may modify a sentence by showing

- The time when the thing occurred;
- The place where;
- The manner how;
- The certainty, uncertainty, or probability of it, &c.

With regard to the *second* of the above-mentioned uses, we may also modify a primary or secondary attribute, in relation to its *quality* or *quantity*; as, It is *twice* blessed; he acted *very* boldly. Accordingly,

Adverbs may be divided into the following five classes:—

I. Adverbs of Time.

1. Point of time; as, *Then, now, formerly, presently, afterwards, immediately, soon, already, before, after, to-day, yesterday, to-morrow, betimes, ago, next.*
2. Duration of time; as, *Always, ever, never, long, continuously, awhile.*
3. Repetition; as, *Often, seldom, again, sometimes, generally, anew, afresh, anon, mostly.*

II. Adverbs of Place (more properly Space).

1. Rest in a place; as, *There, here, everywhere, nowhere, above, below, within, without, behind, before, in, out, yonder.*

2. Motion to or from; as, *To, fro, forth, off, away, into, unto, hence, thence, hither, thither, upward, downward, around, backwards, sideways, forwards, far, near, wide.*

Observe.—Many of the 'abstract adverbs can be used either to imply rest or motion, according to the verb with which they are joined; as, *Up, down, on, through, over, under, yonder, off, &c.* We can say equally,
He is down, or, He *went* down.

III. Adverbs of Quality.

1. Manner; as, *Thus, so, well, wisely, quickly, &c.*

This forms by far the largest class of adverbs, including nearly all those derived from adjectives, and ending in *ly*; as, *firmly, strongly, boldly, &c.*

2. Degree; as, *Very, nearly, almost, scarcely, only, quite, altogether, more, most, the more, the less, exceedingly, eminently, &c.*

IV. Adverbs of Quantity.

1. Measure; as, *Much, little, enough, somewhat, partly, entirely, half.*

2. Number and order; as, *Once, twice, twofold, threefold, firstly, secondly, finally, lastly.**

V. Adverbs of Mood.

1. Affirmation; as, *Yes, certainly, truly, surely, absolutely.*

2. Negation; as, *No, not, by no means, not at all.*

3. Probability and doubt; as, *Perhaps, probably, perchance, likely, im- probably.†*

Observations.—(1.) *Why, wherefore, when, where,* and all similar words, which contain the force of the relative, are more properly reckoned amongst the Conjunctions, inasmuch as they are used to connect sentences. When, however, they are employed *interrogatively*, they come more accurately under the head of Adverbs; as, *When* will you come? *Why* did he go?

(2.) There is also a vast number of *compound phrases* which have the force of adverbs in the English language. The following are examples:—*At best, at present, at random, by and by, in future, now and then, of course, of necessity, at once, &c.* These may all be classified under some of the preceding heads.

(3.) The adverb may generally be known by the fact of its being movable to any part of the sentence in which it occurs. We can say with equal propriety, He went home *then*, He *then* went home, and, *Then* he went home. The only case in which the adverb is not movable, is when it qualifies an adjective or another adverb, and then it is easily known by its connexion with the word which it qualifies.

* Measure might here be called *continuous* quantity, and number *discrete* quantity.

† The adverbs relating to time, place, manner, and probability, relate to *facts*, and therefore can be used, for the most part, only with the verb; those that relate to degree and to quantity, apply more especially to simple attributes, and are therefore used more especially with adjectives or adverbs.

Table of Adverbs.

Adverbs express	1. Time,	<i>a</i> Point of time, . . .	Then.
		<i>b</i> Duration of time, . . .	Ever.
		<i>c</i> Repetition, . . .	Often.
	2. Place,	<i>a</i> Rest in, . . .	Here.
		<i>b</i> Motion, to or from, . . .	Away.
	3. Quality,	<i>a</i> Manner, . . .	Wisely.
		<i>b</i> Degree, . . .	Very.
	4. Quantity,	<i>a</i> Measure, . . .	Half.
		<i>b</i> Number and Order, . . .	Once.
	5. Mood,	<i>a</i> Affirmation, . . .	Yes.
		<i>b</i> Negation, . . .	No.
		<i>c</i> Probability or Doubt . . .	Perhaps.

THE PREPOSITION.

The PREPOSITION is a word which shows the relation of a noun or pronoun to some other word in the sentence.

Sometimes the preposition shows the relation of one *substantive* to another; as, The wisdom *of* Solomon is renowned. Sometimes it shows the relation of some person or thing to a given action; as, He fell *against* the wall. Sometimes it shows the relation of a substantive to some quality; as, Bread is good *for* food.

These facts may be thus expressed—

Prepositions relate nouns or pronouns to other nouns or pronouns, to verbs, or to adjectives.

As all language begins with expressions for the different objects of sense, so the primary use of the preposition was to indicate simpler relations between material objects; as, *On the table, in the room.* Hence,

I. The primary and most original class of prepositions are those which express simple relations of place; such as—

1. Place *where* a thing is (rest in); as, *In, on, at, by.*

2. Direction to or from a place (motion); as, *To, into, unto, towards, up, down, from.*

3. Both place and direction (rest and motion); as, *Over, under, through, before, behind, between, amongst, upon, near, off, across, beyond, abast, above, athwart, near.*

We can say equally well, It is *over* the door; and, He went *over* the hill; and so of the others mentioned above.

II. Many of the prepositions expressing relations of place, have come to be employed to indicate *relations of time*.

Thus, besides saying *in the house*, we can also say *in the morning*.

1. The following are examples of prepositions which have become thus employed:—*In, at, before, after, between, by, within, about, off*.

2. The only prepositions which are applied to time merely are *Since, till, until, during, pending*.

III. The next step in the development of the preposition was to employ those which expressed relations of place to indicate the *agent* and *instrument* of an action.

Thus, as well as saying, The mill is *by the river*, we can also say, The mill is turned *by the river*.

1. The prepositions used in this sense are, *By, through, and with*.

2. Various compound prepositional phrases are used to express the same idea; e.g. *By means of, by virtue of*.

IV. A fourth relation is expressed when we employ prepositions to denote the *cause or purpose* of an action; thus, as well as saying, He went *from home*, we can also say, He did it *from gratitude*.

Most of the prepositions used to denote cause and purpose are compound forms; as, *on account of, for the sake of, out of, &c.*

V. Prepositions having once come into general use, became gradually multiplied and extended, so as to include a great variety of relations not easily classified.

Amongst these we may include the ideas of—

1. Separation and exclusion,	expressed by	Without, except.
2. Inclination,	.	For.
3. Aversion,	.	Against.
4. Substitution,	.	Instead of.
5. Possession, quality, material.	.	Of.
6. Reference to,	.	Touching, concerning, about.
7. Opposition,	.	Against.
&c.		&c.

Remark.—Prepositions ending in ‘ing;’ as, touching, pending, concerning, &c., are not originally *prepositional* in their meaning, but rather *participial*. They have gradually become, however, purely prepositional in their meaning, and may be so regarded in parsing.

Many other relations are expressed by *compound prepositional forms*; such as, *in place of, in defiance of, in regard to, agreeably to,*

owing to, apart from, &c. Each of these expressions, it will be seen, contains but one relational idea.

Many prepositions, also, are simply used to aid the signification of the verb, without having any distinctive relational idea of their own; as, He laughed *at* me; he despaired *of* it.

Remark.—Prepositions may always be known by observing that they are attached to a noun, and cannot be removed from one part of the sentence to another except in connexion with the noun to which they belong.

Table of Prepositions.

positions expressing relations of	1. Place	{ Rest in,	In.
		{ Motion to or from,	To, from.
		{ Both rest and motion, . . .	Over.
	2. Time	{ Time as well as place, . . .	At.
		{ Time only,	Till.
	3. Agent and instrument		By, with.
	4. Cause		For.
	5. Miscellaneous ideas, such as	{ Separation,	Without.
		{ Inclination,	For.
		{ Aversion,	Against.
		{ Substitution,	Instead of.
		{ Possession,	Of.
		{ Reference,	Touching.
		{ Opposition,	Against.

THE CONJUNCTION.

*The CONJUNCTION is a word which is used to connect the different parts of an extended sentence; as, Napoleon abdicated because he was defeated at Waterloo, and many of his former friends had forsaken him.**

Explanation.—The primary use of the conjunction is to connect *two affirmations* together; as, John came, *and* Mary followed. Even when the conjunction *appears* only to connect two words, it really connects *two sentences*. Thus, in the phrase, 'William and Mary ascended the throne,' *two* distinct assertions are made, although the verb is not twice repeated.

The *most frequent* use of the conjunction, however, is to connect a subordinate sentence with a principal—the whole phrase forming one qualified

* Other parts of speech are connective as well as the conjunction, particularly the relative pronoun. The term conjunction, however, is applied simply to those connective particles which cannot be classified under any of the other parts of speech.

affirmation. Thus, in the expression, 'I will go when you permit me,' the conjunction *when* joins the second or subordinate sentence to the first, and the whole expression forms one affirmation, qualified by a sentence of *time*. These have sometimes been called *governing* conjunctions; by other grammarians they have been termed *continuative*, because they do not *divide*, but *continue* the sense of the passage.

This latter kind of conjunction holds the same relation to the subordinate sentence which it governs, as the preposition does to its case; for just as the preposition shows a vast number of relations which a noun holds to some other word in the sentence, so also the conjunction will express the very same relations as existing between subordinate sentences and the principal. Thus we have conjunctions of Time, Place, Manner, Cause, &c. as well as prepositions,—the one governing *sentences*, the other *nouns*, as:—

Cæsar returned, *when* he had subdued Gaul (Time).

Cæsar crossed the river, *where* he had appointed (Place).

Cæsar died, *because* he was ambitious (Cause).

Cæsar would have become emperor, *if* he had lived (Condition).

&c.

&c.

&c.

Thus, prepositions relate **notions** to one another; conjunctions relate **sentences**.

Some conjunctions, whilst they join two sentences together, unite also their meaning; as, William was ambitious, *and* England was enslaved.

Other conjunctions, whilst they join two sentences together, disunite their meaning, and put them in contrast with one another; as, William was ambitious, *or* England was enslaved.

On this distinction is founded the following classification—

Conjunctions are of two kinds,—*Copulative* and *Disjunctive*.

I. COPULATIVE CONJUNCTIONS.

A Copulative Conjunction is one which not only joins sentences together, but also unites their meaning.

There are two kinds of copulative conjunctions:—

1. Those that simply *connect* the meaning of two united sentences; as, Henry died, *and* Edward succeeded him.

2. Those that *combine* the meaning of the two united sentences; as, Edward reigned *after* his father died.

The former may be called *connective*, and the latter *continuative* conjunctions.

II. DISJUNCTIVE CONJUNCTIONS.

A Disjunctive Conjunction is one which, while it joins two sentences together, disconnects their meaning.

There are two kinds of disjunctive conjunctions:—

1. Those that simply *disconnect* or *distribute* the meaning of the

united sentences; as, He was here yesterday, *or* will come to-morrow.

2. Those that *contrast* the meaning of the united sentences; as, William was brave, *but* Henry was a coward.

The former may be called *distributive*, the latter *adversative* conjunctions.

As the conjunctions have to do chiefly with *sentences*, the further classification of them will be left until we have to view them in connexion with the Analysis of the Sentence.

The following Table will, in the meantime, give a list of the conjunctions most in use under their proper heads:—

Table of Conjunctions.

I.	Copulative,	1. Connective,	{ And. Also. Likewise. Moreover. Further.		
			{ Before, where, that.		
			{ Ere, whither, except.		
			{ After, whence, however.		
			{ When, because, as if.		
		2. Continuative,	{ Whilst, if, so that.		
			{ Until, unless.		
			{ Whenever, though.		
			{ As, although, than.		
			{ Or, nor.		
II.	Disjunctive,	1. Distributive,	{ Either, neither.		
			{ But.		
		2. Adversative,	{ Nevertheless.		
			{ However.		
			{ Still.		
			{ Notwithstanding.		
			{ Yet.		

There are also a great number of compound conjunctions or conjunctive phrases used in the English language, of which the following may be taken as examples:—

As well as, as soon as, in as far as, in as much as, after that.

Remark.—It is frequently difficult to determine whether a word used in any given sense is a conjunction or an adverb. The test by which this may be determined is the following:—If the word is movable to any other part of the sentence, it is an adverb; but if it cannot be moved from the beginning of the sentence which it introduces without destroying the sense, it must be, strictly speaking, a conjunction.

THE INTERJECTION.

• **An INTERJECTION** is a word which expresses any sudden wish or emotion of the mind, but no definite thought.

Explanation.—The interjection is the most primitive of all the parts of speech, and hardly comes, indeed, within the sphere of articulate language at all. Almost all animals have some peculiar sound to express any sudden feeling which they may experience. The interjection is simply such a sound as employed by man.

Interjections may express:—

- | | | |
|--|-----------|----------------------|
| 1. Sudden joy; as, | | <i>Hurrah!</i> |
| 2. Sudden sorrow or pain; as, | | <i>Ah! Alas!</i> |
| 3. Sudden approbation; as, | | <i>Bravo!</i> |
| 4. Sudden surprise; as, | | <i>O! Ha! Heigh!</i> |
| 5. Sudden displeasure; as, | | <i>O fie! Pook!</i> |
| 6. A sudden desire with respect to others, as, | | <i>Hush! Hallo!</i> |

Having now gone through all the Parts of Speech, it will be necessary to show that the number is complete. This will be done by pointing out

THE PRINCIPLES OF THE ABOVE CLASSIFICATION.

The various notions of which the human mind is capable may be divided into two great classes:—

I. Notions of all the *things*, mental or material, real or imaginary, of which we can form any conception.

II. Notions of all the qualities, states, or actions, which we can in any way attribute to them.

Hence there are two principal classes of words corresponding to these two classes of notions:—

I. Names of things, i. e. *substantives*.

II. Names of actions, states, or qualities, i. e. *attributives*.

Under the names of things, we have two parts of speech, viz. the Noun and the Pronoun.

Under the names of attributes, we have three parts of speech, viz. the Verb, the Adjective, and the Adverb.

It is necessary, however, to express not only the different kinds of notions which we form, whether of substances or attributes, but also to indicate certain relations as existing between them.

These must be either relations which exist between one notion and another, or relations which exist between one affirmation and another.

1. If we require to express any relation between one notion and another, we employ the Preposition.

2. If we require to show the relation between one affirmation and another, we employ the Conjunction.

The only part of speech left is the Interjection, which is simply the expression of a sudden emotion of the mind, and does not stand in any grammatical relation to the rest of the sentence.

Table of Parts of Speech.

Words express	I. Notions,	1. Substantives,	.	.	Noun.
					Pronoun.
		2. Attributive,	(With an	assertion,	Verb.
			(Without an	assertion,	Adjective.
	II. Relations,		(Secondary	attribute,	Adverb.
		1. Between one notion and another,	.	.	Preposition.
		2. Between one assertion and another,	.	.	Conjunction.
		Extra-grammatical utterance,	.	.	Interjection.

CHAPTER II.

ON THE DIFFERENT CHANGES AND INFLEXIONS TO WHICH WORDS ARE SUBJECT.

Words are the signs of *ideas*. The same idea may often be viewed in several different relations.

Thus, the action expressed by the verb may be viewed in relation to *present*, *past*, or *future* time.

To express these different relations readily, the form of the word is often changed; as, *love* into *loved*, *run* into *ran*. These changes are called *inflexions*. * The parts of speech which admit of *inflexions*, are the Noun, the Adjective, the Pronoun, the Verb, and the Adverb.

I. INFLEXIONS OF THE NOUN.

The Inflexions of Nouns relate—

1. To their *Number*; 2. To their *Case*; 3. To their *Gender*.

1. *Number*.

When we employ a name, we sometimes wish it to express only one of the things which the name indicates, and sometimes more than one. To mark this difference the name is *inflected*.

If the name means only one, it is said to be in the *Singular* number; if it means more than one, it is said to be in the *Plural* number.

General Rule for the Plural.

The Plural of Nouns is formed by the addition of s to the Singular; as, book, books.

Exceptions.—1. Nouns ending in *s*, *x*, *z*, *sh*, and the soft *ch*, cannot take an *s* for the plural, as the sounds would not easily combine. They form their plural therefore in *es*; *as, loss, losses; box, boxes; brush, brushes; church, churches*. Most nouns ending in *e*, preceded by a consonant, also take *es*; *as, potato, potatoes*.

2. Nouns ending in *y*, preceded by a consonant, change the *y* into *ies*; *as, lady, ladies*.

3. Most nouns in *f* or *fe* form their plural in *ves*; *as, calf, calves; knife, knives*. Some few nouns, however, particularly those ending in *ff*, *oof*, *rf*, such as *hoof, turf, stuff*, follow the general rule, and simply add *s* to the singular.

Exception.—*Staff* makes *staves*.

4. A few nouns of Saxon origin form their plural by changing the vowel sound of the singular. They are *man, men; woman, women; foot, feet; goose, geese; tooth, teeth; mouse, mice; louse, lice*.

Three nouns of the same origin form their plurals in *en*; *as, ox, oxen; child, children; brother, brethren*. (The modern form, *brothers*, is now used in ordinary conversation.)

The words *swine* and *kine* belong really to this class, though not in other respects regular. *Swine* comes from *sow*, and *kine* from *cow*.

5. Some few words have their plural the same as the singular; *as, sheep, deer*.

Fish, fowl, and some other singular forms of the same kind, are used as plurals when a *quantity* is expressed; but *fishes, fowls, &c.*, when we wish to imply *number*. In the same way, we often employ *pence* and *pennies* as two plural forms of the word *penny*,—one collectively, the other distributively.*

Foreign Plurals.—1. Pure Latin nouns, adopted into our language, generally retain their Latin endings.

Nouns in <i>us</i>	form the plural in	<i>i</i> ;	as, focus, foci.
<i>um</i>		<i>a</i> ;	as, datum, data.
<i>a</i>		<i>æ</i> ;	as, nebula, nebulae.
<i>ex</i>		<i>ices</i> ;	as, vortex, vortices.
<i>us</i> (neuter gender)		<i>era</i> ;	as, genus, genera.

2. Pure Greek nouns adopted into our language, retain the Greek endings in the plural. Thus,

Nouns in <i>is</i>	form the plural in	<i>es</i> ;	as, crisis, crises.
<i>on</i>		<i>a</i> ;	as, phenomenon, phenomena.

3. Some words adopted from modern languages retain their original plurals. Thus,

<i>Eau</i> (French)	takes	<i>eaux</i> ;	as, beau, beaux.
<i>e</i> and <i>o</i> (Italian)		<i>i</i> ,	as, dilettante, dilettanti; virtuoso, virtuosi.

4. Hebrew nouns sometimes take *im*, as, cherub, cherubim.

Remark.—There are a few nouns in English which have no singular, as those derived from the Greek plural adjective; viz. *Physics, Metaphysics, Politics*; also, *riches, alms, and news*. Though the last noun requires a singular verb after it.

2. Case.

We often require not only to *name* things, but to show their relations to other things as well. In many languages this is usually done by putting a certain inflexion at the end of the noun. The noun is then said to be in a certain *case*, and the inflexion is called a case-ending.

There are three cases in English; the *Nominative*, the *Possessive*, and the *Objective*.

The noun, in its simple form, is commonly said to be in the *nominative* or in the *objective* case, according as it stands differently related to the verb, or to a preposition in a sentence. As there is here, however, no change of *inflexion*, we shall treat further of this subject in its proper place, under the 'Structure of Sentences.'

* The following words are frequently used in the plural sense, without any plural termination, when a number is spoken of:—*cannon, head, shagreen, foot pound, sail, shot, stand, stone, brace, couple, lash, dozen.*

In the English language, most of the relations between nouns are expressed by prepositions; as, *by* the church, *in* the field. The only relation which is indicated by a distinct inflexion at the end of the noun is that of possession; as, *William's house*. Hence it is usually called the *Possessive case*.

General Rule for Possessive Case.

The Possessive Case singular is formed by writing an apostrophe and an s after the singular noun: as, neighbour, poss. neighbour's. The possessive plural is formed by simply writing the apostrophe after the plural noun; as, neighbours, poss. neighbours'. When, however, the plural does not terminate in s, the apostrophe and the s after it must be both retained; as, men, men's.

Exceptions.—1. Where the singular ends in *es*, sounded as a distinct syllable, the apostrophe *only* is used; as, Socrates' wife.

2. Words ending in *ss*, *x*, *us*, and *ce*, frequently form the possessive singular by simply adding the apostrophe, particularly when used with the term 'for the sake'; as, For goodness' sake, for Jesus' sake, for conscience' sake. This is to prevent the recurrence of the hissing sound.

Remark 1. The apostrophe shows that a vowel has been left out. The Anglo-Saxon possessive ended in *es*.

2. The possessive case can be equally well expressed by the preposition '*of*.' My father's house—the house of my father.

3. Gender.

In the English language, gender relates only to those nouns which indicate living creatures. All the names of animals of the male kind are of the *masculine*, all the names of animals of the female kind are of the *feminine* gender. All other names are said to be *neuter*, i. e. neither masculine nor feminine.

There are two inflexions which are used to distinguish the feminine gender from the masculine. The more frequent is the affix *ess*; as, *lion, lioness*. The less frequent is the affix *ine*; as, *hero, heroine*. All other modes of distinguishing gender arise from the employment of separate words; as, *cock, hen; he-goat, she-goat*.

Remark.—Feminines in *ess* and *ine* have come into the English through the French. The Anglo-Saxon language employed different words to mark the gender.

Some nouns are used both for the male and female; such as *cousin*, *parent*, *bird*, &c. These are usually termed *common* as to gender.

TABLE OF NOUNS WHICH HAVE A SEPARATE WORD FOR THE
MALE AND FEMALE.

Bachelor.	Maid.	Hart.	Roe.
Boar.	Sow.	Horse.	Mare.
Boy.	Girl.	Husband.	Wife.
Bridegroom.	Bride.	King.	Queen.
Brother.	Sister.	Lord (as a title).	Lady.
Buck.	Doe.	Man.	Woman.
Bull.	Cow.	Monk.	Nun.
Cock.	Hen.	Nephew.	Niece.
Dog.	Bitch.	Ram.	Ewe.
Drake.	Duck.	Son.	Daughter.
Earl.	Countess.	Stag.	Hind.
Father.	Mother.	Uncle.	Aunt.
Gander.	Goose.	Wizard.	Witch.
Gentleman.	Lady.		

Words originally Latin, ending in *or*, take the Latin form of the feminine in *ix*; as, *testator*, *testatrix*; *accutor*, *accutrix*.

Remark. Abstract qualities and names of countries are not unfrequently poetically regarded as feminine; as, *Her* ways are ways of pleasantness; England extends *her* power over the globe.

II. INFLEXION OF THE ADJECTIVE.

Adjectives express the qualities of nouns. The only variation we need to indicate in regard to qualities, is the *degree* in which they are to be attributed to the noun in question. If I speak of a thing as being *white*, I may attribute this quality to it *generally*, or I may speak of it as being *more* white than certain other things, or the *most* white of all the objects about which we are speaking. Hence—

There are in adjectives of quality *three* degrees of comparison—the *Positive*, the *Comparative*, and the *Superlative*.

General Rule for Inflections of Adjectives.

The positive degree is the adjective in its simple state; the comparative is formed by adding *er*; and the superlative by adding *est*; as, strong, stronger, strongest.

Exceptions.—1. No adjectives, except those which denote *quality* or *quantity*, can have any degrees of comparison.

2. If an adjective denoting quality or quantity consist of more than one syllable, it is generally compared by prefixing *more* for the

comparative, and *most* for the superlative; as, *more* beautiful, *most* beautiful. A few adjectives also add *most* to the end of the word, as a kind of superlative affix; as, upper, uppermost.

Remark.—If adjectives of two syllables end in *y*, *er*, or *ble*, they are compared by inflexion, as holy, holier; tender, tenderer; noble, nobler.

3. The following words are compared irregularly:—

Bad, ill, evil,	Worse,	Worst.
Far,	Farther,	Farthest.
Fore,	Former,	Foremost or First,
Good,	Better,	Best.
Late,	Later or Latter,	Latest or Last.
Little,	Less,	Least.
Many, much,	More,	Most.
Near,	Nearer,	Nearest or Next.
Old,	Older or Elder	Oldest or Eldest.

III. INFLEXIONS OF THE PRONOUN.

The Pronoun, like the Noun for which it stands, is inflected in reference to Number, Case, and Gender.

1. Number.

In reference to Number, the personal pronouns, in place of using an inflexion, change the whole form of the word; as,

<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
I	We.
Thou	Ye or you.
He, she, it	They.

2. Case.

In reference to Case, the personal pronouns are more fully inflected than the nouns.

In addition to the *possessive*, all of them (except *it*, *you*, and *one*) have a particular form for the *objective* case likewise; as,

<i>Nom.</i>	<i>Obj.</i>
I	Me.
Thou	Thee.
He	Him.
She	Her.
We	Us.
Ye	You.
They	Them.

Remark.—*Ye* is not exclusively nominative. It is used by many old writers in the objective case. In the Bible we have *Comfort ye, Comfort ye, my people*; where *ye* is equivalent to *yourselves*.

2. *I, thou, she, we, you, and they*, have two forms of the possessive case; one to be used when placed before a noun, and the other to be used when standing alone; thus we say,

	my	mine.
	thy	thine.
This is	her	hers.
		ours.
	your	yours.
	their	theirs.

Remark.—Both adjectives and possessive cases can ordinarily be used either before nouns or standing alone after the verb with equal correctness; thus we can say, either

This is a good house; or, This house is good.
This is John's house; or, This house is John's.

Hence it is indifferent whether we term *my, mine, thy, thine, &c.*, a possessive pronoun, or a pronoun in the possessive case, as it answers equally well to either description.

The complete table of personal pronouns stands as follows:—

	Nom.	Poss.	Obj.
Sing.	I,	my mine,	me.
	Thou,	thy thine,	thee.
	He,	his,	him.
	She,	her hers,	her.
	It,	its,	it.
	One,	one's,	one.
Plu.	We,	our ours,	us.
	Ye or you,	your yours,	you.
	They,	their theirs,	them.

The relative pronoun *who* undergoes inflexions in the singular number, similar to those of the personal, but makes no change in the plural:—

	Nom.	Poss.	Obj.
Sing. and Plu.	Who,	whose,	whom.

Which, what, and that undergo no case-inflexions.

Gender.

The *third* personal pronoun singular, and the relative, are the only ones which make any distinction of gender. Thus:

	3rd Pers.	Rel.
<i>Mas.</i>	He, his, him. }	Who, whom.
<i>Fem.</i>	She, hers, her. }	
<i>Neut.</i>	It, its, it.	Which.

IV. INFLEXIONS OF THE VERB.

The Verb is used, for the most part, to affirm some kind of action. Actions may be viewed under a great variety of conditions, in reference to the *person* who performs them, the *time* at which they occur, &c. Hence there is a very great number of *relations* we require to express in connexion with them.

On this account it is that the verb, in almost all languages, has by far the greatest variety of inflexions of all the different parts of speech.

The relations of the verb may be classified under the Voice, the Mood, the Tense, the Person, and the Number.

Voice.

If we consider an action, on the one hand, as expressing what *anything does*; or, on the other hand, as expressing what *is done to it*, we indicate these differences by the use of the active and passive voice; as, *I love* (active); *I am loved* (passive).

There are in English no *inflexions* which indicate the passive voice. The different shades of meaning here required are all expressed by *auxiliaries*, as will be seen hereafter.

There is, also, as we have shown, a kind of middle voice used in English. Thus, in addition to the expressions, *I move the table* (active); and *the table is moved by me* (passive); we can only say *the table moves*. To indicate this voice, however, there are no distinct forms, as in the Greek language.

Mood.

If we regard the *mode* or *manner* in which an action presents itself to our understanding, we may consider it either as an actual reality, or as a possibility, or as a command, or as a wish, or generally as an

action wholly undefined. The expression of these different circumstances gives rise to what are called the *moods*.

The simple affirmation of a fact is called the *Indicative mood*; as, *He goes*.

If a condition or uncertainty has to be expressed, we employ what is called the *Conditional or Subjunctive mood*; as, *If he go*.

When a command is expressed, we use the *Imperative mood*, *Go*.

When the power to do an action is expressed, we use the *Potential mood*, *I can go*.

If we express the action generally without any limitation of the idea, we use the *Infinitive mood*, *To go*; which, as we before remarked, is simply using the verb as though it were a noun.

In addition to these, there are the participles, or participial moods ending in *ing* and *ed*, which are simply two forms of the verb used like an adjective, as a *loving* parent, a *bruised* reed.

The participial form in *ing* has also a peculiar use in English answering to the Latin gerund. Thus, *He is to be blamed for breaking it*. *In giving way* we did wrong. *He was tried for stealing* a horse.

Remark.—The English verb is extremely wanting in *inflections* to indicate the moods. The indicative mood of the regular verb, in fact, is the only one which has *inflections* peculiar to itself. By means of auxiliaries, however, we can express all the varieties of mood with remarkable accuracy, as will be shown hereafter.

Tense.

If we take into consideration the *time* at which the action is performed, and duly express it, this gives rise to the employment of what are called *Tenses*, which help us to point out any action as being either present, past, or future; as, *I love*, *I loved*, *I will love*.

The English language is very rich in auxiliaries, and by their means can express more shades of meaning in the tense relations of the verb than probably any other existing language. Thus it has a present indefinite *I love*, a present progressive *I am loving*, and a present complete *I have loved*. In the same way it can express a past indefinite *I loved*, a past progressive *I was loving*, and a past complete *I had loved*. So again for the future, it can express a future indefinite *I shall love*, a future progressive *I shall be loving*, and a future complete *I shall have loved*.

In addition to all this variety of tenses, we can make a number of emphatic forms by the use of the verb *To do*; as, *I do love*, *I did love*; and can again employ the whole system of tenses above indicated in their *passive* as well as in their *active* forms.

Person and Number.

Lastly, If we take into consideration the *person* to whom, or thing to which the action relates as its subject;—whether it be myself, the speaker; or you, the person spoken to; or a third person whom we are speaking of, we may indicate all these differences by certain inflexions; and show still further whether this same subject be singular or plural.

Thus, *I strike*, indicates that I am the doer of the action; *thou striketh*, that you are the doer of it. *John strikes*, that a person of whom we are speaking is the doer of it. The forms *strike*, *strikest*, and *strikes*, accordingly denote the first, second, and third person in relation to the subject of the action.

Some of the above relations are expressed by using separate words, called *auxiliaries*, in connexion with the participial and infinitive forms of the principal verb; as, *I am loving*, *I have loved*, *I will (to) love*. But many others of them are expressed by means of the inflexions we have now to point out.

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB.

There are two forms which the inflexion of the verb assumes in the English language—a modern form (called also *regular*), in which the past tense and past participle end in *d* or *ed*; and an ancient form (called also *irregular*), in which the past tense is formed by changing the characteristic vowel of the verb, and the past participle by a similar change, with or without the termination *en*.

Modern or Regular Conjugation.

TO LOVE.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Pass. Participle.</i>
Love.	Loved.	Loved.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Person.</i>	1. I love.	1. We love.
	2. Thou lovest.	2. Ye or you love.
	3. He loves (loveth).	3. They love.

Past Tense.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Person.</i>	1. I loved.	1. We loved.
	2. Thou lovedst.	2. Ye or you loved.
	3. He loved.	3. They loved.
	IMPERATIVE.—Love.	INFINITIVE.—To love.

PARTICIPLES.

Present or Incomplete.—Loving.

Past or Complete.—Loved.

Remark.—In the conditional or subjunctive mood, which is in all other respects precisely the same in its inflexions as the indicative, the *est* and *s* of the second and third person singular, are frequently left out; *If thou love, if he love.*

Old or Irregular Conjugation.

TO WRITE.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Pass. Participle.</i>
Write.	Wrote.	Written.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Person.</i>	1. I write.	1. We write.
	2. Thou writest.	2. Ye or you write.
	3. He writes (writeth).	3. They write.

Past Tense.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Person.</i>	1. I wrote.	1. We wrote.
	2. Thou wrotest.	2. Ye or you wrote.
	3. He wrote.	3. They wrote.

IMPERATIVE.—Write. INFINITIVE.—To write

PARTICIPLES.

Present or Incomplete.—Writing.

Past or Complete.—Written.

All verbs in the English language are conjugated *more or less* according to the above forms, except *two*, which introduce another root into the *past tense*, viz. the verb *to be*, and the verb *to go*.

AUXILIARY VERBS.

To develop the full conjugation of the English verb, we must employ *Auxiliaries*.

An *Auxiliary Verb* is one which is used to assist other verbs in expressing some particular forms of *Voice*, *Mood*, or *Tense*.

1. *Auxiliaries of Voice.*

1. The verb *to be*, joined to the *complete* participle of any transitive verb, is used to form the *Passive Voice*. Thus,

<i>Active,</i>	{ I love, I loved,	<i>Passive,</i>	{ I am loved. I was loved.
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2. The verb *to be*, joined with the *incomplete* participle of any principal verb, expresses the *progressive* form of the *Active Voice*.

Simple form—I strike. *Progressive form*—I am striking.

CONJUGATION OF VERB 'TO BE.'

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Person.</i>	{ 1. I am. 2. Thou art. 3. He is.	{ 1. We are. 2. Ye or you are. 3. They are.

Past Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Person.</i>	{ 1. I was. 2. Thou wast. 3. He was.	{ 1. We were. 2. Ye or you were. 3. They were.

IMPERATIVE.—Be.

INFINITIVE.—To be.

PARTICIPLES.

Present or Incomplete.—Being.

Past or Complete.—Been.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

Present.

If I be—If thou be—If he be.

Past.

If I were—If thou wert *—If he were.

2. Auxiliaries of Mood.

There are three Auxiliaries of Mood in the English language, all of which are defective in their conjugation—two of them having only a Present and Past Tense, and one only a Present, viz. *may*, *can*, and *must*.

1. *May* is used to express permission or desire; as, I *may* go (permission); *may* he prosper (desire). The mood which it thus forms is generally called *Potential*, sometimes also *Optative*.

CONJUGATION OF 'MAY.'

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.		Plural.	
Person.	1. I may.	1.	We may.
	2. Thou mayest.	2.	Ye or you may.
	3. He may.	3.	They may.

Past Tense.

Singular.		Plural.	
Person.	1. I might.	1.	We might.
	2. Thou mightest.	2.	Ye or you might.
	3. He might.	3.	They might.

2. *Can* is used to denote power; as, I *can* ride. It forms what is more properly called the *Potential Mood*.

CONJUGATION OF 'CAN.'

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.		Plural.	
Person.	1. I can.	1.	We can.
	2. Thou canst.	2.	Ye or you can.
	3. He can.	3.	They can.

* *Wert* is the only word in the English Language that is peculiar to the Conditional Mood, except in poetry, where it is sometimes used for *wast*.

Past Tense.

<i>' Singular. '</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Person.</i>	1. I could.	1. We could.
	2. Thou couldst.	2. Ye or you could.
	3. He could.	3. They could.

3. *Must* is used to denote *necessity*; as, You *must* learn. It has no inflexion whatever, and is only used in the present tense.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Person.</i>	1. I must.	1. We must.
	2. Thou must.	2. Ye or you must.
	3. He must.	3. They must.

The form *I am to* (as, *I am to inform you*) is also employed as a somewhat weaker expression of *necessity*.

4. In addition to the above Auxiliaries of Mood, the past tenses of *will* and *shall*, namely, *would* and *should*, are sometimes used to express *condition*, and then form what is termed the *Conditional* or *Subjunctive* Mood; as, If you *would* come, I *should* be happy.

All the auxiliaries of mood are joined to the Infinitive Mood of the principal verb, the particle *to* being omitted; as, I can (*to*) go, I must (*to*) come.

3. Auxiliaries of Tense.

The three auxiliaries of tense are *have*, *shall*, and *will*.

1. The auxiliary verb *to have* is joined with the complete participle of the principal verb, and thus forms the *perfect* tense; as, I walk (*present*); I *have* walked (*perfect*).

CONJUGATION OF '*HAVE*.'

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Person.</i>	1. I have.	1. We have.
	2. Thou hast.	2. Ye or you have.
	3. He has,	3. They have.

Past Tense.

	<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Person.</i>	1. I had.	• • •	1. We had.
	2. Thou hadst.		2. Ye or you had.
	3. He had.		3. They had.
	IMPERATIVE.—Have.		INFINITIVE.—To have.

• PARTICIPLES.

Present.—Having. • *Past.*—Had.

2. *Shall* and *will* are joined to the Infinitive Mood of the principal verb, to denote future time; as, *I shall come, he will remain.*

Remark.—To express simple futurity, *shall* is used in the first person, and *will* in the second and third; as, *I shall come, thou wilt come, he will come.* *Will*, in the first person, generally denotes determination; as *I will come*; and *shall*, in the second and third persons, generally denote authority: *Thou shalt not kill; he shall come to-morrow.*

CONJUGATION OF 'SHALL' AND 'WILL.'

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

	<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Person.</i>	1. I shall or will.		1. We shall or will.
	2. Thou shalt or wilt.		2. Ye or you shall or will.
	3. He shall or will.		3. They shall or will.

Past Tense.

	<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Person.</i>	1. I should or would.		1. We should or would.
	2. Thou shouldst or wouldst.		2. Ye or you should or would.
	3. He should or would.		3. They should or would.

Both verbs are defective in the other moods and tenses.

Note.—The expressions *to be going*, and *to be about*, are also used as auxiliaries of the future tense, when the action is supposed to follow immediately; as, *I am going to read; I am about to get up.*

4. Auxiliary of Emphasis and Interrogation.

The auxiliary verb *to do* is employed—

1. To express the emphatic form of the verb; as, *I do enjoy it, I did enjoy it, &c.*

2. To complete the interrogative form of the verb. Thus, instead of saying, *Go you? Went he?* we always employ the form, *Do you go? Did he go?*

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB 'TO DO.'

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Person.</i>	1. I do.	1. We do.
	2. Thou dost.	2. Ye or you do.
	3. He does.	3. They do.

Past Tense.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Person.</i>	1. I did.	1. We did.
	2. Thou didst.	2. Ye or you did.
	3. He did.	3. They did.

IMPERATIVE.—Do.

INFINITIVE.—To do.

PARTICIPLES.

Present.—Doing.

Past.—Done.

5. Compound Auxiliaries.

Two or more auxiliaries may be united so as to form numerous compound verbal expressions; as, *I may have loved; I should have been weeping, &c.*

Whatever shade of meaning, in brief, we wish to express in relation to mood, tense, or voice, we can easily do so by combining some of the auxiliary verbs with the infinitive mood or participles of the principal verb.

Taking the simple and compound forms of the verb together, they may be conveniently reduced to the following scheme:—

Name of Tense.	Simple Form.	Progressive Form.	Emphatic Form.
<i>Present.</i> <i>Past.</i> <i>Perfect.</i> <i>Pluperfect.</i> <i>Future.</i> <i>Future perfect.</i>	INDICATIVE MOOD. I love. I loved. I have loved. I had loved. I shall love. Thou wilt love. I shall have loved. Thou wilt have loved.	I am loving. I was loving. I have been loving. I had been loving. I shall be loving. I shall have been loving.	I do love. I did love. I will love. Thou shalt love. I will have loved. Thou shalt have loved.
<i>Present.</i>	IMPERATIVE MOOD. Love (thou). Let (him, her, them, &c.) love.	Let (him, her, &c.) be loving.	Do thou love.
<i>Present.</i> <i>Past.*</i>	CONDITIONAL MOOD. If I love, thou love, &c. If I loved, thou loved, &c.	If I be loving. If I were loving.	If I do love. If thou do love. If I did love. If thou did love.

*All the rest of the tenses in this mood are the same as in the Indicative, preceded by *if* or some conditional conjunction. The auxiliary, however, sometimes drops the *st* and *s* of the indicative in the second and third persons singular, If thou have loved; If he have loved.

The Passive Voice, *To be loved*, is conjugated simply with all the moods and tenses of the verb *To be*, and the Passive Participle; as,

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Name of Tense.	Simple Form.	Progressive Form.	Emphatic Form.
<i>Present.</i> <i>Past.</i> <i>Present Perfect.</i> <i>Future Perfect.</i>	I am loved. I was loved. I have been loved. I had been loved. I shall be loved. I shall have been loved.	I am being loved. I was being loved. Progressive forms of these tenses not used.	There is no emphatic form to the Passive Voice. Emphasis is here made by the accent being strongly marked upon the auxiliary; I AM loved.

Imperative Mood.—Be thou loved. Let him, her, &c., be loved.

Conditional Mood.—If I be loved. If I were loved, &c.

Potential Mood.—I may be loved. I might be loved, &c.

Infinitive Mood.—To be loved.

Participles.—Loved or being loved. Having been loved.

It would be a useful exercise for the scholar to make out a complete paradigm of the verb, both active and passive, in all its moods, tenses, numbers and persons.

IRREGULAR VERBS.

1. The Irregular Verbs may be conveniently divided into three classes.

1. Those which have *only one form* for the Present Tense, the Past Tense, and Complete Participle. They are the following:—

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Comp. Participle.</i>
Burst	burst	burst.
Cast	cast	cast.
Cost	cost	cost.
Cut	cut	cut.
Hit	hit	hit.
Hurt	hurt	hurt.
Let	let	let.
Put	put	put.
Rid	rid	rid.
Set	set	set.
Shred	shred	shred.
Shut	shut	shut.
Slit	slit	slit.
Split	split	split.
Spread	spread	spread.
Sweat	sweat	sweat.
Thrust	thrust	thrust.

2. Those which have *two distinct forms* for the above-mentioned parts of the verb. They are the following:—

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Comp. Participle.</i>
Abide	abode	abode.
Awake	awaked or awoke	awaked.
Beat	beat	beaten.
Behold	beheld	beheld.
Bend	bent	bent.
Bereave	bereft	bereft.
Beseech	besought	besought.
Bind	bound	bound.
Bleed	bled	bled.
Bless	blessed	blessed.
Breed	bred	bred.
Bring	brought	brought.
Build	built	built.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Comp. Participle.</i>
Burn	burned or burnt	burnt.
Buy	bought	bought.
Catch	caught	caught.
Cling	clung	clung.
Come	came	come.
Creep	crept	crept.
Crow	crew	crowed.
Curse	cursed or cursd	curst.
Deal	dealt	dealt.
Dig	dug	dug.
Feed	fed	fed.
Feel	felt	felt.
Fight	fought	fought.
Find	found	found.
Flee	fled	fled.
Fling	flung	flung.
Get	got	got.
Grind	ground	ground
Hang	hanged or hung	hanged or hung.
Hear	heard	heard.
Hold	held	held.
Keep	kept	kept.
Knit	knitted or knit	knitted or knit.
Lay	laid	laid.
Lead	led	led.
Leave	left	left.
Lend	lent	lent.
Load	loaded	loaded or laden.
Lose	lost	lost.
Make	made	made.
Meet	met	met.
Pay	paid	paid.
Read	read	read.
Rend	rent	rent.
Run	ran	run.
Saw	sawed	sawed or sawn.
Say	said	said.
Seek	sought	sought.
Sell	sold	sold.
Send	sent	sent.
Shine	shone	shone.
Shoe	shod	shod.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Comp. Participle.</i>
Shoot	shot	shot.
Sit	sat	sat.
Sleep	slept	slept.
Slide	slid	slid.
Sling	slung	slung.
Speed	sped	sped.
Spend	spent	spent.
Spill	spilt	spilt.
Stand	stood	stood.
Stick	stuck	stuck.
Sting	stung	stung.
Strike	struck	struck or stricken.
String	strung	strung.
Swing	swung	swung.
Teach	taught	taught.
Tell	told	told.
Think	thought	thought.
Weep	wept	wept.
Win	won	won.
Wind	wound	wound.
Wring	wrung	wrung.

3. Those which have *three distinct forms* for the above-mentioned parts of the Verb. They are the following:—

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Comp. Participle.</i>
Arise	arose	arisen.
Bear, <i>to carry</i>	bore or bare	borne.
Bear, <i>to bring forth</i>	bore, bare	born.
Begin	began	begun.
Bid	bid, bade	bidden.
Bite	bit	bitten or bit.
Blow	blew	blown.
Break	broke	broken.
Chide	chid	chidden.
Choose	chose	chosen.
Cleave	cleft or clove	cleft or cloven.
Clothe	clothed	clad or clothed.
Dare, <i>to venture</i>	durst	dared.
Do	did	done.
Draw	drew	drawn.
Dress	dressed	drest.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Comp. Participles.</i>
Drink	drank	drunk.
Drive	drove	driven.
Eat	ate	eaten.
Fall	fell	fallen.
Fly	flew	flown.
Forsake	forsook	forsaken.
Freeze	froze	frozen.
Give	gave	given.
Grave	graved	graven.
Grow	grew	grown.
Hew	hewed	hewn.
Hide	hid	hidden.
Know	knew	known.
Load	loaded	loaded or laden.
Lie	lay	lain.
Mow	mowed	mown.
Ride	rode	ridden.
Ring	rang	rung.
Rise	rose	risen.
Rive	rived	riven.
See	saw	seen.
Sew	sewed	sewn.
Shake	shook	shaken.
Shave	shaved	shaven.
Shear	sheared	shorn or sheared.
Show	showed	shown.
Shrink	shrank	shrunk.
Sing	sang	sung.
Sink	sank	sunk.
Slay	slew	slain.
Slink	slank	slunk.
Smite	smote	smitten.
Sow	sowed	sown, sowed.
Speak	spoke	spoken.
Spin	span	spun.
Spit	spat	spit.
Spring	sprang	sprung.
Steal	stole	stolen.
Stink	stank	stunk.
Stride	strode	stridden.
Strive	strove	striven.
Strew or strow	strewed or strowed	strown, strowed or strowed.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Comp. Participle.</i>
Swear	swore	sworn.
Swell	swelled	swollen or swoln.
Swim	swam	swum.
Take	took	taken
Tear	tore	torn.
Thrive	throve	thriven.
Throw	threw	thrown.
Tread	trod	trodden.
Wax	waxed	waxen.
Wear	wore	worn.
Weave	wove	woven.
Write	wrote	written.

V. INFLEXIONS OF THE ADVERB.

The only inflexions which the Adverb undergoes, and that in comparatively few cases, are similar to those of the adjective—viz. to point out the three degrees of comparison. I run *fast*; he runs *faster*; she runs *fastest*.

In the majority of instances, adverbs are compared like adjectives by *more* and *most*; as, more beautifully; most beautifully.

CHAPTER III.

THE STRUCTURE OF WORDS.

1. Roots and Derivatives.

We have already given an account of the different *kinds* of words in the English language, and of the various inflexions they undergo; the next thing is to show the *sources* from which the words are derived, and to follow the *processes* by which they are formed.

1. A simple word, of whose origin we can give no further account, is termed a *root*. English roots consist of such words as *father*, *son*, *love*, *strong*, *come*, *go*, *tree*, and most other monosyllables which convey a simple notion or idea.

2. A simple word or root sometimes undergoes an alteration of form, either by changing the vowel sound, or by modifying the consonants. Thus, *strong* becomes *strength*; *shake* becomes *shock*;

glass becomes *glaze*; *melt* becomes *smelt*; &c. These we term *primary derivatives* or *stems*.

3. From the primary derivatives, or stems of the language, other words are formed by adding prefixes and affixes. Thus, *strength* becomes *strengthen*; *shock* becomes *shocking*; *glaze* becomes *glazier*. These we term *secondary derivatives*.

4. Two or more words are sometimes joined together to express one complete idea; as, *windmill*, *coppersmith*, *handicraftsman*, &c. These we term *compound words*.

2. Sources of English Words.

1. The principal basis of the English language is the Anglo-Saxon element. Of 38,000 principal words, it is reckoned that about 28,000 spring from this source. Nearly *all* the simple roots and primary derivatives are of Saxon origin, and a large proportion of the secondary derivatives and compound words also.

As the Saxons combined more or less with the original Celtic population of this country, they naturally adopted a certain number of Celtic roots into their language. These roots have become, however, so assimilated to the Saxon form and pronunciation, that it is now difficult to recognise them as coming from a foreign source. In addition to the names of mountains, rivers, and localities, which are to a larger extent Celtic, we may adduce the following as instances of Celtic words which have been assimilated to the Anglo-Saxon dialect, and thus come down into the modern English:—

Bran. •	Bump.	Smooth.
Brat.	Tarry.	Dun.
Bill.	Dainty.	Glen.
Cabin.	Darn.	Crag.
Cobble.	Pail.	Larl.
Quay.	Pitcher.	Lass.

2. The conquest of England by the Normans introduced the Norman-French into this country. As the Norman-French was one of the languages which had sprung out of the prevalence of the Latin idiom (Romance languages), its introduction prepared the way for grafting a large number of originally Latin words upon our primitive English stock. Many of these words came first of all through the French, and retain to this day the marks of their French origin; but as Latin was the learned language of Europe all through, and even beyond the Middle Ages, a still greater number of words were gradually introduced directly from the Latin by English writers who

flourished from the revival of letters down to the time of Milton. From this time the language may be considered as having^c become virtually settled.

Latin roots have, in scarcely any instance, been brought over in their simple form into the English language, but only in the form of secondary derivatives. Thus, we never say to *port*, or to *mit*; but we say, *export*, *import*, *porter*, *importment*; and *remit*, *omit*, *commit*, *commission*, &c.

3. As science and philosophy were first cultivated in Europe among the Greeks, and all other people have studied them more or less under Greek masters, the terms and phrases of the Greek language became naturally introduced into the scientific language of Europe. Hence most technical terms in mathematics, physics, medicine, botany, as well as art and philosophy, have been borrowed from *Greek* sources. These technical terms, with a few other words which have gradually come into more common use, form the present Greek element in the English language.

4. A few words in addition have found their way into our language from the Italian, the Spanish, and even the Hebrew and Arabic; but these have rarely succeeded in becoming thoroughly naturalised as a part of our modern English.

3. Prefixes.

Most of the secondary derivatives in our language are formed by putting a syllable either before or after the root. A syllable put *before* the root is termed a prefix, a syllable put *after* the root is called an affix.

As the prefixes play a very important part in the structure of words, it will be useful here to give a list of them, classified according to the language from which they are derived.

Saxon Prefixes.

<i>Al,</i>	signifying	in or on; as, abed, ashore.	
<i>Be,</i>	forming transitive verbs out of intransitive,	} as, bespeak, besmear.	
	or adding intensity to the meaning,		
<i>For,</i>	signifying	the contrary; as, forbid, forbear.	
<i>Fore,</i>	• •	before; as, foretell, forebode.	
<i>Mid,</i>	• •	middle; as, midway, midshipman.	
<i>Mis,</i>	• •	failure; as, mishap, mistake.	
<i>N,</i>	• •	not; as, never, nor.	
<i>Over,</i>	• •	above; as, overlay, overdone.	

<i>Out,</i>	signifying	excelling; as, outdo, outrun.
<i>Un,</i>	.	not; as, undone, unskilled.
<i>To,</i>	.	this; as, to-day, to-night.
<i>With,</i>	.	against or away; as, withstand, withhold.
<i>Under,</i>	.	beneath; as, underlay.
<i>Up,</i>	.	upwards; as, upheave, upstart.

Latin Prefixes.

<i>A, ab, abs,</i>	signifying	from; as, avert, abstract.
<i>Ad (ac, af, ag, al,</i>		
<i>an, ap, ar, as, at),</i>	.	to; as, adhere, attract.
<i>Am or amb,</i>	.	round; as, amputate.
<i>Ante (anti),</i>	.	before; as, antedate, anticipate.
<i>Bene,</i>	.	well; as, benefit.
<i>Bi, bis,</i>	.	two, twice; as, biped.
<i>Circum,</i>	.	round; as, circumvent.
<i>Co, con, com, col,</i>	.	with; as, co-operate, connect.
<i>Contra,</i>	.	against; as, contradict.
<i>De,</i>	.	down; as, descend.
<i>Dis, di,</i>	.	apart; as, dislodge, diverge.
<i>E, ex, ef,</i>	.	out; as, elect, export.
<i>Equi,</i>	.	equally; as, equidistant.
<i>Extra,</i>	.	beyond; as, extraordinary.
<i>In (with verb),</i>	.	on into; as, induct.
<i>In (with adjective),</i>	.	not; as, inelegant.
<i>Inter,</i>	.	between; as, interlude.
<i>Intro,</i>	.	within; as, introduce.
<i>Non,</i>	.	not; as, nondescript.
<i>Ob (obs, of, op, oc),</i>	.	against, or, in the way of; as, obstruct, occur.
<i>Per,</i>	.	through; as, perspire.
<i>Post,</i>	.	after; as, postpone.
<i>Præ, præ,</i>	.	before; as, pre-ordain.
<i>Præter,</i>	.	beside, past; as, pretermit.
<i>Pro,</i>	.	forth; as, project.
<i>Re,</i>	.	back; as, remit.
<i>Retro,</i>	.	backwards; as, retrospection.
<i>Se,</i>	.	apart; as, separate.
<i>Sub (sub, suc, sur),</i>	.	under; as, subject.
<i>Subter,</i>	.	underneath; as, subterfuge.
<i>Super,</i>	.	over; as, superfluous.
<i>Trans,</i>	.	across; as, transport.
<i>Ultra,</i>	.	beyond; as, ultramontane.

Greek Prefixes.

<i>A</i> or <i>an</i> (α, αν),	signifying	not; as, anarchy
<i>Amphi</i> (αμφι),	.	both; as, amphibious.
<i>Ana</i> (ανα),	.	up; as, anatomy.
<i>Anti</i> (αντι),	.	against; as, antichristian.
<i>Apo</i> (απο),	.	from; as, apostle.
<i>Arch</i> (αρχος),	.	first or chief; as, archangel
<i>Auto</i> (αυτος),	.	self; as, autocrat.
<i>Cata</i> (κατα),	.	down; as, catastrophe.
<i>Dia</i> (δια),	.	through; as, diameter.
<i>En</i> (εν),	.	in; as, enharmonic.
<i>Epi</i> (επι),	.	upon; as, epitaph.
<i>Ex</i> (εκ),	.	out of; as, exodus.
<i>Eu</i> (ευ),	.	well; as, euphony.
<i>Hemi</i> (ημι),	.	half; as, hemisphere.
<i>Hetero</i> (ετερος),	.	different; as, heterogeneous.
<i>Hyper</i> (υπερ),	.	over; as, hypercritical.
<i>Hypo</i> (υπο),	.	under; as, hypothesis.
<i>Meta</i> (μετα),	.	change; as, metamorphosis.
<i>Para</i> (παρα),	.	beside; as, paradox.
<i>Peri</i> (περι),	.	around; as, perimeter.
<i>Syn, syl, sym</i> (συν),	.	with, as, sympathy, syllogism.

The affixes will be explained in stating of the structure of each individual part of speech.

4. Structure of the Noun.

English Nouns are either—1. Original Roots; 2. Primary Derivatives or Stems; 3. Secondary Derivatives or Branches; or, 4. Compound Words.

1. The original *noun roots* of the English language consist of the names of all the common objects of nature and human life around us; such as, *Sun, moon, star, sea, stone, rock, hill, father, mother, sister, brother, hope, fear, love, shame, eye, ear, hand, arm, foot, lip, cow, sheep, dog, cat, &c.*

These words, and others of the same kind, have descended to us through our Saxon forefathers from a period lying beyond all reach of historical research, having undergone only partial changes in spelling and pronunciation, without at all losing their fundamental character.

2. English nouns, which come under the title of *primary derivatives*, are also, with few exceptions, of Saxon origin. They are formed as follows:—

(1.) By modifying the vowel of the root; as, *Bless, bliss; feed, food; bind, bond; knit, knot, net; sit, seat; sing, song; strike, stroke, &c.*

(2.) By modifying the final consonant of the root, or adding another consonant; as, *Stick, stitch; dig, ditch; heal, health; drive, drift; smite, smith; believe, belief; prove, proof.*

(3.) By modifying both vowel and consonant; as, *live, life; lose, loss; choose, choice; weave, west; thief, theft, &c.*

(4.) Many Saxon nouns are formed by modifying the initial consonant, more particularly by prefixing the *s* sound to it; as, *haft, shaft; loath, sloth; wet, sweat; ward, sword; thread, shred.*

3. English nouns, which come under the title of *secondary derivatives*, are formed by a considerable variety of affixes.

A. Saxon derivatives are formed by the following affixes:—

(1.) *Signifying agent or doer.*

<i>er,</i>	as	sing, singer,	} Derived from verbs.
<i>ar,</i>	..	lie, liar;	
<i>ard or art,</i>	..	drink, drunkard;	
	• ..	brag, braggart.	
<i>ster,</i>	..	pun, punster.	
<i>ess, (fem.)</i>	..	seam, seamstress.	

(2.) *Forming Diminutives.*

<i>ling,</i>	as	dear, darling.	} Derived from nouns.
<i>kin,</i>	..	lamb, lambkin.	
<i>ock,</i>	..	hill, hillock.	
<i>let or et,</i>	..	stream, streamlet; flower, floweret.	

(3.) *Denoting abstract ideas, such as State, Condition, Action, &c.*

<i>ship,</i>	as	friend, friendship.	} Derived from nouns.
<i>hood or head,</i>		man, manhood.	
<i>dom,</i>		king, kingdom.	
<i>ery,</i>		slave, slavery.	

<i>age,</i>	as	till, tillage.	} Derived from verbs.
<i>ter,</i>	..	laugh, laughter.	
<i>lock,</i>	..	wed, wedlock.	
<i>ness,</i>	..	white, whiteness.	} Derived from adjectives.

(4.) Denoting Frustrament.

<i>le,</i>	as	gird, girdle.	} Derived from verbs.
<i>el,</i>	..	shove, shovel.	
<i>et,</i>	..	hack, hatchet.	

B. Latin and French derivatives are formed by the following affixes :—

(1.) Signifying an agent or a person generally.

<i>tor, sor,</i>	as	auditor, sponsor.	{ From Latin nouns in <i>tor</i> and <i>sor</i> .
<i>trix,</i>		executrix.	{ From Latin nouns in <i>trix</i> .
<i>eer,</i>		auctioneer.	{ From French nouns ending in <i>aire</i> , and <i>ier</i> , <i>eur</i> .
<i>ee,</i>		legatee.	{ From French nouns ending in <i>é</i> .

(2.) Forming Diminutives.

<i>aster,</i>	as	poetaster.	{ From Italian nouns in <i>astro</i> .
<i>cule, le,</i>		animalcule.	{ From Latin nouns in <i>culus</i> , -a, -um; as, <i>animalculum</i> , <i>particula</i> .
<i>icle,</i>		particle.	

(3.) Signifying abstract ideas.

<i>ary,</i>	as	commentary.	{ From Latin words in <i>arius</i> ; as, <i>commentarius</i> .
<i>cy,</i>	..	clemency.	{ From Latin words in <i>tia</i> ; as, <i>clementia</i> .
<i>ence, ance,</i>	..	penitence.	{ From Latin words in <i>antia</i> or <i>entia</i> ; as, <i>pœnitentia</i> .
<i>ice,</i>	..	justice.	{ From Latin words in <i>itia</i> ; as, <i>justitia</i> .
<i>ion, tion, sion,</i>	..	action, passic	{ From Latin words in <i>io</i> ; as, <i>actio</i> .
<i>ment,</i>	..	ornament.	{ From Latin words in <i>men-</i> <i>tum</i> ; as, <i>ornamentum</i> .

<i>our,</i>	as	ardour.	{ From Latin words in <i>or</i> , through the French; as, <i>ardor, ardeur.</i>
<i>ty, ity</i>	..	dignity.	{ From Latin words in <i>tas</i> ; as, <i>dignitas.</i>
<i>tude,</i>	..	multitude.	{ From Latin words in <i>tudo</i> ; as, <i>multitudo.</i>
<i>ture, sure,</i>	..	tincture.	{ From Latin words in <i>ura</i> ; as, <i>tinctura.</i>

Many nouns of the above description are formed directly from *verbs*, by simply changing the accent, e. g., *To affix, an áffix*; *To export, an éxport*, &c.

C. Greek derivatives are formed by the following affixes:—

(1.) *Signifying agent or person.*

<i>an,</i>	musician.	From Greek words in <i>κος</i> (<i>kos</i>).
<i>ist,</i>	sophist. <i>ιστης</i> (<i>istēs</i>).
<i>ite,</i>	{ Israelite (patro- nymic) } <i>ιτης</i> (<i>itēs</i>).

(2.) *Forming Diminutives.*

<i>isk,</i>	as	asterisk.	From Greek <i>αστερισκος</i> .
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(3.) *Signifying abstract ideas.*

<i>e, y,</i>	as	epitome, anarchy.	From Greek nouns in <i>η</i> (<i>ē</i>).
<i>ism, sm,</i>	..	deism.	{ From Greek nouns in <i>ισμος</i> or <i>ισμα</i> (<i>ismos</i> or <i>isma</i>).
<i>ic, ics,</i>	..	arithmetic.	{ From Greek adjectives in <i>ικος, -α, -ον</i> (<i>kos, -a, -on</i>).
<i>ma,</i>	..	panorama.	{ From Greek nouns in <i>μα</i> (<i>ma</i>).
<i>sis,</i>	..	hypothesis.	{ From Greek nouns in <i>σις</i> (<i>sis</i>).

4. *Compound* nouns of Saxon origin exist largely in the present English language, and are not unfrequently coined as necessity requires; e. g. *housemaid, railroad, helmsman, steamboat, cast-iron*, &c.

Compound words, derived from Latin and Greek, are borrowed in their compound form from those languages. New ones are coined only for scientific purposes.

5. Structure of the Adjective.

English Adjectives, like English Nouns, are either,—1. Original Roots; 2. Primary Derivatives; 3. Secondary Derivatives; or, 4. Compound Words.

1. Many adjectives derived from the Saxon are *roots*, inasmuch as no simpler form of the word can now be assigned from which they have originally sprung. Such are, *good, bad, long, short, high, thin, thick, white, black, &c.*

2. English adjectives, which come under the title of *primary derivatives*, are also of Saxon origin.

They are formed, like the noun-stems, from verbs and nouns, or other adjectives, in the following ways:—

(1.) By modifying the vowel; as, *fill, full; wring, wrong; pride, proud; string, strong.*

(2.) By modifying or adding a consonant; as, *loathe, loth; four, fourth.*

(3.) By modifying both vowel and consonant; as, *wit, wise; five, fifth.*

(4.) By adding on an initial consonant; as, *hollow, shallow, light, slight, deep, steep, hoarse, coarse, rough, gruff.*

3. English adjectives which come under the title of *secondary derivatives*, are formed by a considerable variety of affixes:—

A. Saxon derivatives are formed by the following:—

<i>ed,</i>	as	left-handed.	{ Participial form of adjective.
<i>en,</i>		wooden.	Meaning <i>material.</i>
<i>ern,</i>		southern. }	<i>direction</i> (used with the points of the compass).
<i>erly,</i>		southerly. }	
<i>fold,</i>		fourfold.	<i>repetition.</i>
<i>ful,</i>		truthful.	<i>full of.</i>
<i>ish,</i>		whitish, boyish.	<i>rather</i> (diminutive and sometime likeness).
<i>less,</i>		houseless.	<i>without.</i>
<i>like,</i>		lifelike. }	<i>resemblance</i> or <i>fitness.</i>
<i>ly,</i>		lovely. }	

<i>some,</i>	as	winsome.	{ Meaning possession of some quality.
<i>ward.</i>	..	windward.	{ direction to a place.
<i>y,</i>	..	mighty.	{ The adjectival form of a noun.
<i>un</i> (prefix),	..	ungodly.	Meaning not.

B. Latin derivatives are formed by the following :—

<i>al,</i>	as	equal.	{ From Latin adjectives in <i>alis</i> ; as, <i>equalis</i> .
<i>an,</i>	..	human.	{ From Latin adjectives in <i>anus</i> ; as, <i>humanus</i> .
<i>ant, ent,</i>	..	elegant, eminent.	{ From Latin adjectives in <i>ans, ens</i> ; as, <i>elegans</i> .
<i>e</i> (preceded by consonant),	..	marine.	{ From Latin adjectives in <i>nus</i> (preceded by consonant) ; as, <i>marinus</i> .
<i>fic,</i>	..	horrific.	{ From Latin adjectives in <i>ficus</i> ; as, <i>horrificus</i> .
<i>ferous,</i>	..	carboniferous.	{ From Latin adjectives in <i>fer</i> and <i>ferus</i> ; as, <i>pestifer</i> or <i>pestiferus</i> .
<i>ible, able,</i>	..	visible.	{ From Latin adjectives in <i>bilis</i> ; as, <i>visibilis</i> .
<i>id,</i>	..	timid.	{ From Latin adjectives in <i>idus</i> ; as, <i>timidus</i> .
<i>il, ile,</i>	..	fertile.	{ From Latin adjectives in <i>ilis</i> ; as, <i>fertilis</i> .
<i>olent,</i>	..	violent.	{ From Latin adjectives in <i>olens</i> ; as, <i>violens</i> .
<i>ose, ous,</i>	..	verbose, copious.	{ From Latin adjectives in <i>osus</i> ; as, <i>verbosus, copiosus</i> .
<i>ple, ble,</i>	..	triple, double.	{ From Latin adjectives in <i>plex</i> ; as, <i>triplex</i> .
<i>tory, sory,</i>	..	migratory.	{ From Latin adjectives in <i>torius, sorius</i> ; as, <i>migratorius</i> .
<i>tive,</i>	..	captive.	{ From Latin adjectives in <i>tivus</i> ; as, <i>captivus</i> .
<i>uous,</i>	..	arduous.	{ From Latin adjectives in <i>uus</i> ; as, <i>arduus</i> .
<i>que</i> (French).	..	oblique.	{ From Latin adjectives in <i>quus</i> ; as, <i>obliquus</i> .

C. Greek derivatives are formed simply by—

ic,	as	hieroglyphic.	{ From Greek adjectives in ικός; as, αριθμητικός.
ical,	..	arithmetical,	

4. *Compound* adjectives exist to a large extent in the English language, particularly in the participial form; as, *left-handed, right-minded, blue-eyed, &c.*

6. Structure of the Pronoun.

Pronouns are either,—1. Original Roots; 2. Derivatives; or, 3. Compound Words.

All of them are of Saxon origin except '*one*.'

1. The pronouns which may be regarded as *original roots* of the English language, are, *I, me, we, us, thou, ye, you, he, she, it, they, who, self.*

Observation.—Of the above, *he, she, it,* and *they,* were not originally personal pronouns, but demonstrative adjectives (like the Latin *hic* and *ille*); but they are, nevertheless, original roots, which have come to be used pronominally.

2. The following pronominal forms are *derivatives*:—

<i>Thee,</i>	Objective form from <i>thou.</i>
<i>Him,</i>	Originally a dative form from the masc. <i>he</i> and neut. <i>hit</i> of the Saxon <i>he, heo, hit</i> (he, she, it); now an objective masc.
<i>Her,</i>	Originally a feminine dative and possessive form from the Saxon <i>heo.</i>
<i>Them,</i>	Originally a dative form from the Saxon <i>that.</i>
<i>My,</i>	Possessive form from <i>me.</i>
<i>Thy,</i> <i>thou.</i>
<i>Our,</i> <i>we.</i>
<i>Your,</i> <i>you.</i>
<i>Their,</i> <i>they.</i>
<i>Mine,</i> <i>my.</i>
<i>Thine,</i> <i>thy.</i>
<i>Hers,</i> <i>her.</i>
<i>His,</i> <i>his.</i>
<i>Ours,</i> <i>our.</i>
<i>Yours,</i> <i>your.</i>
<i>Theirs,</i> <i>their.</i>
<i>Its,</i> <i>it</i> (modern)

<i>Whom,</i>	Objective form from <i>who</i> ; originally dative.
<i>What,</i>	Neuter form from <i>who</i> .
<i>One,</i>	Derived from the French <i>on</i> , which is an abbreviation of <i>homme</i> .
<i>One's,</i>	Possessive form of <i>one</i> .
<i>Which,</i>	A compound form originally from <i>who</i> and <i>like</i> (in the Scottish dialect <i>whilk</i>).

3. The *compound* pronouns are those formed by the union of the words *self* and *own*, with various of the personal and possessive pronouns; as, *myself*, *my own*, *themselves*, *one's-self*, &c.

7. Structure of the Verb.

English Verbs are either—1. Original Roots; 2. Primary Derivatives; or, 3. Secondary Derivatives.

Compound Verbs can hardly be said to exist in the English language, consisting only of a few semi-technical forms like, *hamstring*, *whitewash*, &c.

1. All the English verbs of the old form of conjugation are of Saxon origin, and all of them form *original roots* of the English language.

A considerable number of other verbs, which are now conjugated according to the modern form, were once conjugated according to the ancient; as, *climb*, *laugh*, *quake*, &c. These are also to be regarded as original roots of the language.

2. English verbs which come under the title of *primary derivatives*, are, with very few exceptions, also of Saxon origin. They are formed from original nouns and verbs in the following ways:—

(1.) By modifying the vowel: as, *lie*, *lay*; *sit*, *set*; *fly*, *flee*; *fall*, *fell*, &c.

This Class is *all* of Saxon origin.

(2.) By modifying the last consonant, either as to form or pronunciation; as, *advice*, *advise*; *bath*, *bathe*; *grease*, *grease*; *use*, *use*, &c.

Observations.—(a) This class of verbs is formed from nouns, and they are, in some few cases, of Latin origin.

(b) The *e* at the end of *bathe*, *breathe*, &c., is added only to modify the sound of the preceding consonant.

(3.) By modifying both vowel and consonant; as, *drink*, *quench* *glass*, *glaze*; *hound*, *hunt*; *wring*, *wrench*, &c.

(4.) By prefixing *s* or *t*; as, *dun*, *stun*; *melt*, *smelt*; *whirl*, *twirl*, &c.

Remark.—There is a great number of derivative verbs in English, which are formed by combining two or more of these changes. The following may be cited:—*Crack, scratch*; *cut, scud*; *hop, skip*; *heave, shove*; *hoot, shout*; *mar, smear*; *tread, straddle*; *reach, stretch*; *warp, swerve*; *haunt, saunter*.

3. English verbs which come under the title of *secondary derivatives*, are formed by a considerable variety of affixes.

A. Saxon derivatives are formed by the following:—

<i>en</i> ,	as 'heighten, weaken;	signifying <i>to make</i> .
<i>er</i> ,	climb, clamber;	<i>frequentative force</i> .
<i>ish</i> ,	burn, burnish;	(<i>various</i> .)
<i>le</i> ,	nip, nibble;	<i>frequentative force</i> .
<i>y</i> ,	soil, sully;	<i>to make</i> .

Remark.—(1.) Many nouns and adjectives have been turned into verbs without any change whatever; as,

Dry,	.	.	.	To dry.
Cool,	.	.	.	To cool.
Rain,	.	.	.	To rain.
Salt,	.	.	.	To salt.

An increasing tendency (which ought to be resisted) to use the same word for different parts of speech is perceptible in the present day. Many such verbs have now become accepted; as, *to crop* a farm; *to advocate* a cause; *to ship* goods, &c. But such licenses should be very sparingly admitted.

(2.) There is a natural tendency in the Saxon element of the English language to produce a number of verbs from the same root, varying somewhat their *form*, to express corresponding modifications of meaning.

Thus, from *clap*: we have *clash*, *clatter*, *clutch*, *cluster*; from *creep*: *crouch*, *crook*, *crawl*; from *drip*: *drop*, *droop*, *dribble*, *strip*; from *kill*: *quell*, *quail*, *squel*; from *rip*: *rive*, *strip*, *strap*; from *tread*: *tramp*, *trample*, *stride*, *straddle*.

B. Latin derivatives are formed—

(1.) From the root of the verb; as,

Discern,	from	Discernere.
Concur,	..	Concurrere.
Condemn,	..	Condemnare.
Defend,	..	Defendere.
Inflect,	..	Inflectere.
&c.		&c.

The root is got by throwing off the terminations of the infinitive: *are, ere, -err, -ire*.

(2.) From the supine of the verb; as,

Act,	from	Actum.
Audit	..	Auditum.
Accept,	..	Acceptum.
Credit,	..	Creditum.
Debit,	..	Debitum.
Affect,	..	Affectum.
Investigate,	..	Investigatum.
Expedite,	..	Expeditum.
&c.		&c.

C. Greek derivatives are formed by the termination *ise* or *ize*; as, *baptize* (from βαπτίζω).

This termination, *ise* or *ize*, has been adopted to form many modern English verbs; as, to *Germanize*; or to *Italicise*, &c.

8. Structure of the Adverb.

English Adverbs are either—1. Original Roots; 2. Primary Derivatives; 3. Secondary Derivatives; or, 4. Compound Words.

1. The *original* adverbs of the English language consist of a few monosyllables derived from the Saxon; such as, *now, then, there, here, oft, well, ill, not, so, thus*.

Observation.—*Then, there, thus, and here*, have now been traced pretty clearly to genitive, accusative, and dative forms of the Saxon demonstrative pronouns.

2. *Primary derivatives* are formed—

(1.) From numerals; as,

Once, twice, thrice; from *one, two, three*. These were originally the ordinary *genitive* forms of the numerals.

(2.) From nouns; as,

<i>Needs,</i>	.	Genitive of <i>need</i> .
<i>Whilom,</i>	.	Dative of <i>while</i> .

So also we say—

<i>Mornings,</i>	for	Of a morning (Ger. <i>morgens</i>).
<i>Evenings,</i>	..	Of an evening (Ger. <i>abends</i>).
<i>Mondays,</i>	..	Of a Monday.

3.) From other adverbs; as,

<i>Thence, thither,</i>	from	<i>There.</i>
<i>Hence, hither,</i>		<i>Here.</i>

Observations.—(a) A few cases also occur in which adverbs are formed out of adjectives and prepositions by adding the genitive termination *as*, as,

<i>Unawares,</i>	from	<i>Unaware.</i>
<i>Besides,</i>	..	<i>Beside.</i>

(b) A large number of the prepositions are joined to verbs, and used adverbially, without any change in their form. Thus we say, To go *down, up, in, about, through, across, &c.*

(c) The participial form of the verb is sometimes used adverbially; as, The man came *walking*; The church stood *gleaming* among the trees.

All the primary derivatives amongst the English adverbs are of Saxon origin, and nearly all have been primarily inflexions of nouns, pronouns, or adjectives.

3. English adverbs which come under the title of *secondary derivatives*, are formed in the following ways:—

(1.) By the affixes—

ly; as, wisely, cunningly.

This may be termed the *general* form of the adverb, when derived regularly from the corresponding adjective.

<i>ward</i> or <i>wards</i> ;	as, backward, <i>from</i> back.	} Signifying direction.
	sidewards, side.	
<i>ways</i> or <i>wise</i> ;	always, all.	
	likewise, like.	

The terminations *wise* and *ward* are only used with Saxon derivatives; *ly* is a universal adverbial form for all derivatives.

(2.) By the prefixes—

a; as, ashore, aboard, adrift, aground.

be; .. behind, betimes.

These two prefixes are the remains of the prepositions *on* and *by*.

4. There is a great number of *compound* adverbs in the English language, formed by combining together various other parts of speech; as, *forthwith, peradventure, pell-mell, see-saw, sometimes, somewhere, thereabout, straightway, yesterday, to-morrow, henceforward, headlong, &c.*

We may add also those derived from compound adjectives; as, *left-handedly, good-naturedly, ill-manneredly, &c.*

9. Structure of the Preposition.

Prepositions may be divided, in relation to their structure, into three kinds—1. Simple Original Prepositions; 2. Derivatives; 3. Verbal Prepositions.

1. The *simple original* prepositions of the English language are the following:—*At, by, for, from, in, on, of, till, to, through, up, with.*

Remark—As prepositions are relational words, and always appear later in the development of a language than words conveying *notions*, it is probable that none of them are, strictly speaking, original roots, but that they have been formed out of nouns and verbs. This formation, however, is so remote, that they may be considered practically as simple and original forms.

2. Of *derived* prepositions, many are formed from verbs, adjectives, and other parts of speech, by the use of the prefixes—

a; as, *amid, about, above, along, among, athwart, around, against.*

be; as, *beside, before, below, beneath, between, beyond.*

Others are formed by combining two simple prepositions together; as, *into, unto, upon, within, without, throughout.*

3. *Verbal* prepositions are simply the imperative and participial forms of verbs used prepositionally; e.g. *Concerning, during, regarding, respecting, touching, save, and except.*

All the prepositions of the first and second class are of Saxon origin, those of the third of Latin.

10. Structure of the Conjunction.

English Conjunctions may be classed under the three heads:—

1. Simple; 2. Derivative; 3. Compound.

1. The *simple* conjunctions of the English language are—*And, or, but, if, as.*

2. The *derived* conjunctions are such as—*Nor, neither, either, than, though, whether, even, for, that, since, seeing, except.*

3. *Compound* conjunctions are such as are made up of two or more other words; as, *Howbeit, in as far as, nevertheless, moreover, wherefore, whereas, although, &c.*

PART III. OF SYNTAX

CHAPTER I.

ON THE STRUCTURE OF SENTENCES.

SECT. I.—PRIMARY ELEMENTS OF THE SENTENCE.

A sentence is a complete thought expressed in words.

Every thought supposes, 1st, That there is an object which occupies the mind; and, 2dly, That the mind thinks something about it.

When we *express* a thought, the thing which has occupied our mind is called *the subject*; that which we have thought, and which we now affirm respecting it, is called *the predicate*; as,

Sub. Pred.
Fire—burns.

Explanation.—The mind, in the act of thinking, unites two ideas together. For example, *gold* and *glitter* are two ideas, which we possess singly. If we now bring them together, so that the one is affirmed of the other, we create the sentence, *Gold glitters*; which is the due *expression* of our thought.

The real essence and life of the sentence lies in *this union of two ideas*. The bond which unites them is called *the copula*.

The copula (which contains the affirmation) is most frequently included in the same word with the predicate; as,

Time flies.

Frequently, however, the copula is expressed by a distinct word; as, *Man is mortal*.

In compound verbs, the copula is always contained in the *auxiliary*; as, 'Never shall I forget him.' Here the *affirmation* is evidently included in the auxiliary *shall*.

In grammatical analysis, it is more convenient to regard the copula as belonging to the predicate; so that instead of having three essential elements to every sentence, as is the case in Logic, we shall have only two, namely,

1. The Subject, which expresses the thing about which we are speaking; and
2. The Predicate, which contains what we affirm of the subject.

A sentence which consists only of a simple subject and predicate, and nothing more, is said to be in its barest and most elementary form. Both the subject and the predicate may be enlarged, as in the following example :—

	Sub.	Pred.
<i>Elementary form,</i>	Men	think.
<i>Enlarged form</i>	Wise men	think rightly.

Here we add an *attribute* to each part of the sentence. The attribute to the subject is expressed by an *adjective*; the attribute or modifying word to the predicate is expressed by an *adverb*.

Thus we have two principal and two subordinate elements, which enter into the formation of sentences; namely,

Principal.	Subordinate.
1. Subject.	3. Attribute to subject.
2. Predicate.	4. Modifying word to predicate.

These four elements answer to the four kinds of notional words before referred to; namely,

1. Noun.	2. Verb.	3. Adjective.	4. Adverb.
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Vide p. 20.

Remark.—When the predicate is a transitive verb, it is necessary that the *object* to which the action relates should be stated; as,

Attrib.	Sub.	Pred.	Object.	Modifying word.
Wise	men	employ	their talents	rightly.

The object, however, introduces no *new* element into the sentence; but is expressed by exactly the same forms of speech as the subject.

SECT. II.—EXPANSION OF THE PRIMARY ELEMENTS OF THE SENTENCE.

1. The Phrase.

Besides employing the pronoun instead of the noun, we may form a *phrase* consisting of two or more words, and use it in place of the noun, either as a subject or object to the sentence.

Thus, in place of the sentence, 'Anger is madness,' we could say, 'To be angry is to be mad;' where we have substituted a *phrase in the infinitive mood* for each of the nouns in the first sentence.

In like manner we might say, 'Being angry is being mad;' where we have substituted a *participial phrase* for the same nouns in each instance.

These *participial forms* are most extensively used, in the English language, in place of nouns, though retaining, at the same time, some of the qualities of the verb.

The *essential element* of the verb, indeed, that of having the power of affirmation, they do *not* possess; but they retain the power of *expressing action*, and of taking one or more objects after them. They are used most frequently with prepositions, forming thus a large series of useful prepositional phrases; but they are not unfrequently employed without prepositions, to take the place of the subject or the object in a sentence.

Examples.

- | | |
|----------------------|--|
| In place of Subject. | 1. <i>Doing his duty</i> is the delight of a good man. |
| In place of Object. | 2. Benevolence implies <i>doing good to all mankind</i> . |
| | 3. I am tired of <i>walking</i> . |
| | 4. He is never weary of <i>reading his books</i> . |
| With Prepositions. | 5. <i>In coming up the lane</i> , I met William. |
| | 6. The necessity of <i>being prepared for every emergency</i> is unquestionable. &c. &c. &c. |

In the great majority of cases these participial forms correspond in meaning with the Latin *gerund*.

1. *The noun, then, in the structure of sentences, can be expanded into infinitive and participial phrases.*

Again, in place of the *adjective*, we may also employ a phrase.

Thus, for the sentence, '*Wise men are happy*;' we may say, '*Men of wisdom are happy*;' where the adjective is turned into a *prepositional* phrase.

Or we might say, '*Men pursuing wisdom are happy*;' where we have substituted a *participial* phrase for the adjective.

2. *The adjective, therefore, in the structure of sentences, can be expanded into prepositional and participial phrases.*

Lastly, in place of the *adverb*, we may make use of a phrase also; as, *He acted wisely. He acted with wisdom.*

3. *Thus the adverb also may be expanded into an equivalent prepositional phrase.*

The verb can also be expanded into the copula and the attribute. Thus,

He raves, may be expanded into
He is a maniac; or,
He is of unsound mind.

2. The Subordinate Sentences.

The Noun, the Adjective, and the Adverb, in addition to being expanded into *phrases*, may be further expanded into *subordinate sentences*. Thus, in the three sentences,

1. Anger is madness;
2. To be angry is madness;
3. That a man should be angry is madness;

we have three forms of the *subject*—1st, as a *noun*; 2dly, as *noun-phrase*; 3dly, as a *noun-sentence*.

Again, in the three sentences,

1. The wise man is happy;
2. The man of wisdom is happy;
3. The man who is wise is happy;

we have three forms of the *attribute*—1st, as an *adjective*; 2dly, as an *adjective-phrase*; 3dly, as an *adjective-sentence*.

Lastly, in the three sentences,

1. He acts wisely;
2. He acts with wisdom;
3. He acts as a wise man should act;

we have three forms of the *modifying term*—1st, as an *adverb*; 2dly, as an *adverbial-phrase*; 3dly, as an *adverbial-sentence*.

From the above explanations, we see how the primary elements of the sentence may be expanded into elements of a second and of a third degree; those of the first degree consisting of words, those of the second of phrases, those of the third of subordinate sentences.

All sentences, however complex, consist of these elements either in their simple or expanded forms.

The following Table will give a complete view of the component parts of sentences, arranged according to the principle just explained:—

PRINCIPAL PARTS.		SUBORDINATE PARTS.		
	<i>Subject.</i>	<i>Predicate.</i>	<i>Attribute.</i>	<i>Object.</i>
Elements of 1st Degree,	Noun or Pronoun.	Verb.	Adjective, Possessive Case, Noun in apposition.	Noun or Pronoun.
Elements of 2nd Degree,	Infinitive phrase, Participial noun-phrase.	Copula with adjective, noun, or phrase.	Prepositional phrase. Participial phrase.	Infinitive phrase, Participial noun-phrase.
Elements of 3rd Degree,	Noun-sentence.	Copula with noun-sentence.	Adjective-sentence.	Noun-sentence.
				Adverb.
				Prepositional phrase.
				Adverbial-sentence.

Having taken a survey of the elements of which all sentences consist, we proceed to explain the different *kinds* of sentences in detail.

SECT. III.—THE SIMPLE SENTENCE.

A sentence is called simple when it contains only one finite verb.

1. Of the Subject.

By the subject of a sentence is meant that respecting which any affirmation is made; as, *Moses died*.

When the subject consists of a single word or phrase, with or without the article, we call it a *simple* subject; when attributes of any kind are added to define its signification more fully, we call it an *enlarged* subject.

A. The Simple Subject.

The simple subject is a word or phrase standing in the nominative case, and answering to the question who? or what? as,

Who perished? *Cæsar perished.*
What is agreeable? *Reading good books is agreeable.*

If the subject consist of a *word merely*, with or without the article, that word must be either

1. *A noun*; as, *Pompey fell*; *Walking is healthy*; or,
2. *A word used in place of a noun*; as,

- (a) *A pronoun*; *He fell bravely.*
- (b) *An adjective*; *The wise are happy.*

If the subject consist of a *phrase* (or element of the second degree) it must be either

1. *An infinitive phrase*; as, *to walk is healthy*; or,
2. *A participial phrase*; as, *walking in the fields is healthy.*

Remarks.—1. In an imperative sentence, the subject *thou* or *ye* is often omitted, though it is still *involved* in the use of the verb; as, *Go (thou) home*; *hasten (ye) into the town*.

2. In the case of impersonal verbs, the subject is *indefinite*, and its place is occupied by the pronoun *it*; as, *It rains*.

3. There is yet a third exceptional form, viz. when a sentence begins with *it* as the subject, and the explanation of what is implied in this subject follows the predicate in a kind of *apposition phrase or sentence*; as,

It now happened that, Robert returned from Palestine;
i. e. *It*, viz. that Robert returned from Palestine, now happened.

4. Participial and infinitive phrases used as subjects, may retain their full government as verbs; as, *drinking water is healthy*; *to do good is our duty*.

B. The Enlarged Subject.

When one or more attributes are added to the simple subject, it is said to be enlarged; as, The beneficent wisdom of the Almighty is visible everywhere.

The word *wisdom*, in the above sentence, is sometimes called the *grammatical subject*, while the whole expression, 'The beneficent wisdom of the Almighty,' is called the *logical subject*. Grammatically speaking, the word *wisdom* is the nominative case to the verb *is*; but logically speaking, the affirmation is made not respecting wisdom generally, but respecting *the beneficent wisdom of God*.

Sometimes the assertion would be quite untrue if made of the grammatical subject only, but may be quite correct when made of the logical subject; as, *Good men are always respected*.

The subject is enlarged by any kind of expression that can stand as a complement to the noun.

By a complement to the noun, we mean any attributive word or words which either limit or qualify its meaning.

1. Complements to the noun of the first degree are the following:—

(1.) The adjective; as,

A cheerful disposition lightens labour.
These men are truly noble.

(2.) The noun in apposition; as,

Charles the king was beheaded in 1649.
William the Conqueror died in 1087.

(3.) The noun or pronoun in the possessive case; as,

Becket's death caused great consternation.
His reputation had been great.

Remarks.—1. The participle is used as a complement of the first degree, but then it is strictly equivalent to an adjective; as, *The dying man revived*.

2. The adverb of place or time is sometimes employed as a complement to the noun; as, *The church here is very fine*. In such instances, *here*, *there*, &c., are evidently used as equivalents for the phrases, *in this place*, *in that place*.

3. When the subject expresses measure or quantity, it can take an adverb as a complement; as, *Nearly a pound was missing*. *Almost a dozen were present*. Perhaps it might be more correct, however, to consider these adverbs as qualifying the adjective 'v' in the sense of *one*.

2. Complements to the noun of the second degree are—

(1.) The prepositional phrase; as,

A man of virtue is trusted even by his enemies.
The method of smelting iron is very curious.
The thirst for gold is degrading.

(2.) The participial phrase; as,

William, *having conquered Harold*, ascended the throne.
Remote from towns he ran his golly rife.

Remarks — 1. Under the prepositional phrase may be classified that peculiar form of expression which is called *prepositional*, as, *One of the most remarkable events* took place in this reign. *Threes of my friends* were absent.

2. Under the participial phrase may be classified the participle, preceded by the verb to be, as, *This is a thing to be avoided, done, &c.* (Lat. *evitandum, agendum.*)

3. The subject may be enlarged by any number of combinations of the above complements; as,

Good old red wine is the best.

Wisdom, a crown and ornament both to young and old, is never to be despised.

A man of wisdom, truth, and goodness is highly esteemed.

Cæsar, having conquered Gaul, disciplined his legions, and equipped his fleet, sailed over to Britain.

Born to inherit the most illustrious monarchy in the world; and early united to the object of her choice, the amiable princess, happy in herself, and joyful in her future prospects, little anticipated the fate that was so soon to overtake her

Sometimes we find several different subjects, and those perhaps *enlarged* subjects, where there is only one predicate expressed; as,

Not rural sights alone, but rural sounds
 Exhilarate the spirits.

With each of these subjects the same predicate is to be *understood*, though it is only *expressed* once.

The case in which the subject is enlarged by an *adjective sentence*, will be explained in the next section.

2. Of the Predicate.

The Predicate asserts respecting the subject:—

- | | |
|------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. What it is, | Silver is white. |
| 2. What it does, | Birds fly. |
| 3. What is done to it, | Carthage is ground in a mill. |

Forms of the Predicate.

The predicate is formed by an element of the *first*, or of the *second* degree.

1. When the predicate is formed by an element of the *first* degree,

it always consists of some particular voice, mood or tense of a finite verb; as,

The bell *tolls*. You *should not deceive* me. The property *was injured*.

2. The predicate may be expanded into a *phrase* (or element of the second degree), by separating the finite verb into the copula, and some other parts of speech following it; as,

He *rejoices*—may be expanded into—He *is joyful*.

The predicate, thus expanded, may consist of the verb *to be*, followed by—

1. An adjective; as, Man *is mortal*.
2. A noun; as, Europe *is a continent*.
3. An adverb; as, Cæsar *was there*.
4. A phrase; as, He *is of sound mind*.

The predicate is sometimes expanded even into an element of the third degree, by uniting the verb *to be* with a sentence; as,

The purse *was where I left it*.

Remark.—The verb *to be*, when used as the copula, only expresses a relation between two notions, and, consequently, requires a notional word after it, in order to form a complete predicate. If, however, it is used as an equivalent of the verb *to exist*, it may form a predicate by itself; as, *God is*, i. e. exists. In this case, however, the sentence is usually preceded by the adverb *there*; as, *There is a God*.

3. On the Completion of the Predicate.

When the verb does not suffice to convey an entire notion of the action which we affirm of the subject, it requires to be *completed*; as, William defeated.

Here, evidently, an incomplete idea is conveyed, until we specify *whom* he defeated, namely, Harold. The word *Harold* is, therefore, called '*the completion of the predicate*.'

The word or words which form the completion of the predicate are usually termed *the Object*, and the grammatical relation existing between the predicate and its various completions is called the *Objective relation*.

Transitive verbs are completed by adding a noun, or something equivalent to a noun, in the objective case. Besides this, however, there are several *intransitive* verbs, which often require completion. Of this kind are the verbs *become*, *seem*, *grow*; as, He *became* a wise man; he *seemed* an idler; he *grew* tall. In these cases, the completion is spoken of the subject, and must be in the same case.

Forms of the Object.

There are various ways in which the affirmation conveyed by the verb is completed.

1. A predicate consisting of an ordinary transitive verb is completed by simply expressing the object to which the action directly relates; as, God governs *the world*.

2. Some verbs, however, do not complete the sense of the predicate without another term being expressed besides the *direct* object; as,

She added mental refinement to *personal beauty*.

Edward left *him* the crown.

Antony accused Brutus of *ingratitude*.

Objects, then, are either *direct* or *indirect*.

1. *Direct Object.*

The direct object is a word [or phrase] standing in the objective case and answering to the question whom? or what?

Whom did he call?

He called *his son*.

What did he find?

He found *his pencil*.

The direct object can be expressed by precisely the same forms of speech as the subject, i. e.

- | | |
|-------------------------------------|--|
| 1. By a noun, | The ox draws <i>the plough</i> . |
| 2. By a pronoun, | The ox draws <i>it</i> easily. |
| 3. By an adjective, | We honour <i>the good</i> . |
| 4. By an infinitive phrase, | John loves <i>to study</i> . |
| 5. By a participial phrase, | He enjoys <i>walking in the fields</i> . |

As the direct object is always a noun or something equivalent to it, it may, of course, take any of the complements of the noun for its enlargement; as,

The baker makes *good* bread.

Charity covereth a multitude of *sins*.

All followed Peter *the Hermit*. &c. &c.

2. *Indirect Object.*

The indirect object is a secondary completion, which must be added to certain classes of verbs in order to express adequately the whole sense of the predicate.

1. The indirect object may consist of another noun or pronoun in the objective case; as,

The people made Edward *king*.
I call a miser a *poor man*.
She made him her heir.

Remarks.—This is called, by the German grammarians, the *factitive* object, since the verb *to make* (Lat. *facto*) is the *typos* of that whole class of verbs which admit of this construction.

1. Sometimes the *factitive adjective* is used in place of the second noun; as,

Alfred rendered his kingdom *secure and happy*.
The judge pronounced him *innocent*.

2. After verbs of considering, the particle *as* is generally inserted before the second object; as,

All regarded Socrates *as* a wise man.

3. Sometimes, also, the *factitive noun* takes the prepositions *for* and *to*; as,

We took him *for a philosopher*.
The fire reduced the house *to ashes*.

2. The indirect object may consist of a noun or pronoun *with a preposition*.

Ex. 1. The prince gave a large dowry *to his daughter*.

When the indirect object takes the preposition *to*, it is called by some grammarians the *dative* object; by others, the *personal* object.

Remark.—1. The pronouns *him, them, me, &c.* were originally forms of the dative case, so that they are now used for the dative object *without* the preposition *to*; as,

He gave *me* permission.
He taught *me* geography.

2. We may also explain here the anomalous case of an object following the *passive verb*; as, *I was taught geography*.

This can happen only when an active verb has two objects, and one of them becomes the subject of it in its passive form, while the *other object* remains to enlarge the predicate as before.

Ex. 2. Brutus accused Caesar *of ambition*.

When the indirect object takes the preposition *of* before it, it is called by some grammarians the *genitive* object.

Many *adjectives* take the *genitive* object for their completion; as,

Napoleon was capable *of great exertion*.
Nero was guilty *of murder*.

3. The indirect object, when it implies *action*, is often expressed by an infinitive or a participial phrase; as,

Ex. 1. The general forced him *to serve*.

I counsel you *to wait patiently*.

THE COMPLETION OF THE PREDICATE.

Many verbs, particularly those which imply perceiving, knowing, feeling, &c. take the infinitive as an indirect object *without the particle 'to';* as,

We heard the thunder *roll*.

We saw the ship *sink in the waves*.

Ex. 2. We saw him *struggling with the enemy*.

Ex. 3. I feel myself *impelled to this course*.

Ex. 4. They accused Jugurtha *of bribing the senate*.

4. Many intransitive verbs and adjectives take an indirect object *only; as,*

Pyrroho *despaired of truth*.

We never speak *of this subject*.

Be always mindful *of your promise*.

I am ready *to start*.

We are tired *of waiting*.

Remarks.—1. In all the above instances, the completion of the predicate is expressed by means of *objective* cases (or expressions equivalent to them), with or without a preposition. There is one form, however, in which the predicate is completed by means of the *nominative*, and that is when the factitive notion is expressed by means of a neuter or passive verb; as,

Harold became *king*.

The beggar was made *a prince*.

Here the words *king* and *prince* are completions in the *nominative* case.

2. Verbs of the middle voice, such as *to weigh, to measure, &c.* take a correlative noun in the objective case for their completion; as,

The loaf weighs *four pounds*.

The table measures *six feet round*.

3. There is a case of frequent occurrence in which we have an objective case followed by the infinitive mood; as, *I told him to come; I wish you to go*. These are really cases of the double or the complex object. In the phrase *I told him to come*, we have *him* as the dative object, and *to come* as the direct object. In the phrase *I wish you to go*, the object of my wish is not *you*, nor the action of going. But what I wish is *you to go*; hence the whole expression may be taken as a complex object to the verb *wish*.

4. Extension of the Predicate.

The predicate of a sentence, in addition to being completed, may also be extended, for the purposes of modification, by words which express any circumstances of time, place, manner; as, .

The eagle flies *swiftly*.

William was here *yesterday*.

The predicate is extended—

1. By an adverb; as,

Leonidas died *bravely*.

2. By a word or phrase equivalent to an adverb; as,

(a) By a prepositional phrase—

The eagle flies with great swiftness.

(b) By an adverbial phrase—

He fought most bravely of all.

We travelled very rapidly indeed.

(c) By a noun phrase, used adverbially—

He rides every day.

They fought hand to hand.

(d) By a participle, or participial phrase, used adverbially—

The messenger came running.

The church of the village

Stood gleaming white in the morning sheen.

Observations.—The *nominative absolute* is a species of participial phrase performing the office of modifying the predicate; as,

Spring advancing, the swallows re-appear.

Several of such phrases are not unfrequently combined to express a number of accompanying circumstances, as in the following passage:—

But me, scarce hoping to attain that rest,

Always from port withheld, always distressed,

Me howling winds drive devious—tempest-tossed,

Sails rent, seams opening wide, and compass lost.

We may notice, under peculiarities of construction, an *adverbial* usage of the adjective, noun, and participle, as the following—

1. He lived *honest*, and he died *brave*.

2. He lived a *philosopher*, and died, a *hero*.

3. He lived *hoping*, and he died *despairing*.

There can be no doubt that the noun, adjective, and participle, in each of these instances takes the place of an adverbial adjunct, qualifying the force of the verb.

The circumstances which determine more accurately the meaning of the predicate may be classified under the following four heads:—

1. Those relating to *time*.

2. Those relating to *place*.

3. Those relating to *manner*.

4. Those relating to *cause*.

I. Adjuncts of *time*, attached to the predicate, are used to specify one of the following ideas:—

(1.) Some particular point or period of time, answering to the question, *when?* as,

He came yesterday.

I get up at sunrise.

(2.) Duration of time, answering to the question, *how long?* as,
He suffered *for many years*.

(3.) Repetition, answering to the question, *how often?* as,
The sea ebbs and flows *twice a-day*.

2. Adjuncts of *place*, attached to the predicate, are also used to express three ideas:—

(1.) *Rest* in a place, answering to the question *where?* as,
He lives in Paris.

(2.) *Motion* to a place, answering to the question, *whither?* as,
The ship sails *for London*.

(3.) *Motion* from a place, answering to the question *whence?* as,
Learning came *from the East*.

3. Adjuncts of *manner*, attached to the predicate, are used to express the following ideas:—

(1.) Manner, properly so called, answering to the question *how?* as,
Birds fly *quickly*.

(2.) Degree, answering to the question, *how much?* or in *what degree?*
Wellington's army was *wholly* exhausted.

(3.) Instrument, answering to the question, *with what?*
William Rufus was shot *with an arrow*.

(4.) Accompanying circumstances; as,
Kempfenfelt went down *with twice four hundred men*.

4. Adjuncts of *cause*, attached to the predicate, are used to express ideas such as the following:—

(1.) Ground or reason; as,
He died *from hunger*.

(2.) Condition; as,
With diligence he will succeed.

(3.) Purpose; as,
The eye was made *for seeing*.

(4.) Motive; as,
He acted *from jealousy*.

(5.) Material; as,
Cloth is made *of wool*.

Various other shades of this idea might be here enumerated. The utmost that can be done here is to make a rough classification. The only other idea, perhaps, which needs distinct mention is that of causality *adversatively* considered.

Columbus set sail, *notwithstanding* the tempest.

We have now gone through all the possible elements of the Simple Sentence, and find that they consist of—

I. Two fundamental parts, viz. Subject and Predicate.

II. Three subordinate parts, viz. 1. The Attribute to the Noun; 2. The Completion of the Predicate; and, 3. The Extension of the Predicate.

But any of these subordinate parts, again, may have words and phrases still further dependent on them; and those words and phrases may, in their turn, govern others; so that, taking the subject and the predicate as the *basis*, we may have various parts of a sentence at one, two, three, and even four or more removes from the primary elements; there being still only one subject and one affirmation in the whole.

Example.

Decius, tired of writing books adapted to the learned only, chose a popular question, with many points of practical interest in it, for the purpose of bringing into useful exercise all the depth and clearness of thought accruing from habits of mind long cherished by philosophical studies.

	1st Remove.	2nd Remove.	3rd Remove.	4th Remove.	
Decius, {	tired	of writing books	adapted	to the learned only,	} belonging to Sub.
Chose {	a popular question,	with many points of practical interest in it,	} belonging to Obj.
' {	for the purpose of bringing into useful exercise	all the depth and clearness of thought	accruing from habits of mind	long cherished by philosophical studies,	} belonging to Extensions.

*Method of Analysing Simple Sentences.**Example 1.*

Him the Almighty Power
 Hurled headlong flaming from the ethereal sky,
 With hideous ruin and combustion, down
 To bottomless perdition.

General Analysis.

Sub. with Attrib.	Pred.	Obj. with Attrib.	Extensions of the Pred.
The Almighty Power	hurled	him headlong flaming from the ethereal sky,	with hideous ruin and combustion, down to bottomless perdition.

Detailed Analysis.

<i>a</i> ,	The Almighty	Attrib. to <i>b</i> , (1.)*
<i>b</i> ,	Power .	SUBJECT OF SENTENCE.
<i>c</i> ,	hurled .	PREDICATE OF SENTENCE.
<i>d</i> ,	him .	Object. to <i>c</i> , (1.)
<i>e</i> ,	headlong .	Attrib. to <i>d</i> , (2.)
<i>f</i> ,	flaming	Attrib. to <i>d</i> , (2.)
<i>g</i> ,	from the ethereal sky,	Prep. phrase dependent on <i>f</i> , (3.)
<i>h</i> ,	with hideous ruin and combustion, }	Extension of pred., (1.) (manner.)
<i>i</i> ,	down .	Extension of pred., (1.) (direction.)
<i>k</i> ,	to bottomless perdition,	Extension of pred., (1.) (place.)

Example 2.

How oft the sight of means to do ill deeds
 Makes ill deeds done.

General Analysis.

Sub. with Attrib.	Pred.	Object.	Extension of Pred.
The sight of means to do ill deeds	makes	ill deeds done	How oft

* The figures (1.) (2.) (3.) mean one, two, or three removes from the principal parts of the sentence.

		<i>Detailed Analysis.</i>
<i>a</i> ,	How oft	Extension of predicate to <i>f</i> .
<i>b</i> ,	the sight	SUBJECT OF SENTENCE.
<i>c</i> ,	of means	Attrib. to <i>b</i> , (1.)
<i>d</i> ,	to do	Phrase dependent on <i>c</i> , (2.)
<i>e</i> ,	ill deeds	
<i>f</i> ,	makes	PREDICATE OF SENTENCE.
<i>g</i> ,	ill deeds	Direct object, (1.)
<i>h</i> ,	done!	Indirect object, (1.) } factitive object to <i>f</i> .

Examples for Practice.

1. The moon threw its silvery light upon the lake.
2. The curfew tolls the knell of parting-day.
3. The sea-coast of Thrace still exhibits a rich prospect of gardens and vineyards.
4. The sun from the western horizon extended his golden wand o'er the landscape.
5. The doctor prescribed his patient a receipt.
6. He recommended him also to use great moderation in his diet.
7. Overwhelmed by the sight, yet speechless, the priest and the maiden gazed on the scene of terror.

SECT. IV.—THE COMPLEX SENTENCE.

A sentence is termed complex, when, with only one principal subject and predicate, it contains two or more finite verbs.

The part containing the main subject and predicate is called the *principal* sentence; that which contains any of the other finite verbs is called a *subordinate* sentence; as,

Through faith we understand *that the worlds were framed by the word of God.*

Solomon was the wisest monarch *that reigned over the Jewish people.*

Here the parts in *italics* are the subordinate sentences. •

Exposition of Subordinate Sentences.

The subordinate sentence, besides containing the essential elements which have been pointed out as belonging to *every* simple sentence, requires generally a connecting word which introduces and governs it. These connecting words (with the exception of the relative

pronoun) must be *conjunctions*, and they hold the same relation to the sentence they introduce, as the preposition holds to the word or phrase which it governs; thus,

I will go *before sunset*.

I will go before the setting of the sun.

I will go before the sun sets.

In the first two instances, *before* is a preposition governing a noun and a phrase. In the last instance, *before* is a conjunction governing a subordinate sentence.

According to what has already been explained (Section II.) there are three kinds of subordinate sentences:—1. The Noun-sentence; 2. The Adjective-sentence; 3. The Adverbial-sentence.

1. The Noun-Sentence.

When the noun, or noun-phrase, is expanded into the form of a proposition, it is termed a Noun-sentence; thus,

Diligence is commendable; or,

To be diligent is commendable;

May be expanded into—

That a man be diligent is commendable; or,

It is commendable *that a man be diligent*.

As the noun-sentence occupies the place and follows the construction of a noun in the whole complex sentence, of which it forms a part, it may take any of the following places:—

1. The place of the subject; as,

That we obey the laws of the country is wise.

Where Attila was buried cannot be determined.

2. The place of the predicate with the verb *to be*; as,

His opinion was, *that I should be successful*.

3. The place of the object; viz.

- (a) The direct object to the verb; as,

Duty requires *that we should succour the wretched*.

- (b) The indirect object to the verb; as,

Our success depends *on who are appointed as judges*.

I was told *that he had since died*.

- (c) Object to an adjective; as,

I am very anxious *that he should succeed*.

4. The place of a noun in apposition; as,

The hope *that we shall succeed* sustains us.

The fact *that he was never seen there* is significant.

Remarks.—1. The case in which the sentence begins with *it*, and the noun-sentence follows, may be regarded as a species of apposition; as,

It is not certain where Attila was buried.

2. The double object, with the infinitive mood, can generally be converted into a noun-sentence; as,

I believe *him to be innocent*.

I believe, that he is innocent.

Connectives of the Noun-Sentence.

1. When the noun-sentence is a *direct* quotation, no connective is required; as, *

He said, 'I know not the man.'

2. When the noun-sentence contains an affirmation or statement, it is introduced by the conjunctions *that* and *but that*; as,

I know *that he will consent*.

I have no doubt *but that he will consent*.

3. When the noun-sentence is an indirect interrogation, it is introduced variously:—

(a) By the interrogative pronouns; as,

I know, *who* you are.

I understand, *what* you want

(b) By interrogative adverbs; as,

I know, *when* he will come.

I understand, *how* he did it.

Remark.—The character of the English language allows us to omit the conjunction *that*, in introducing the substantive sentence; as,

I fear, he will not succeed.

He said, he would go immediately.

2. The Adjective-Sentence.

When the attributive to the noun is expanded into the form of a proposition, it is termed an Adjective-sentence; thus,

The *prudent* man looks to the future; may be written,

The man, *who is prudent*, looks to the future.

As the adjective-sentence may qualify *any noun* in the principal sentence, it is manifest that it may be attached to the subject, the object, or to any of the extensions of the predicate in which a noun is admissible.

1. To the subject; as,

The merchants, *who dwell there*, are wealthy.

2. To the object ; as,
They consumed all the provisions, *which we had collected*.
3. To an extension of the predicate ; as,
We found him in the house, *that he had formerly inhabited*.

Connectives of the Adjective-sentence.

The adjective-sentence is introduced by the relative pronouns *who, which, that*; or by any other word that can be used in place of the relative, such as *wherein, whithar, why, wherefore, how, when, &c.*; as,

The house, *that I have built*, is very convenient.
The country, *wherein they dwell*, was fertile.
The reason, *why I came*, is obvious.
The time, *when we are to start*, is not decided.

Remarks.—1. The nature of the English language frequently allows the relative to be omitted when it is in the objective case, but not otherwise; as,

The home I left was a happy one.
We must make the best terms we can.

2. Care must be taken not to confound the noun-sentence and the adjective-sentence, when they are introduced by the same connective; as,

I know, when we ought to start (*noun-sentence*).
I know the time, when we ought to start (*adjective-sentence*).

Whenever a sentence is preceded by a noun which it qualifies, it must be regarded as an *adjective-sentence*.

3. The Adverbial Sentence.

When the adverb, or adverbial adjunct, is expanded into the form of a proposition, it is termed an Adverbial sentence; thus,

Cato will return *in a few days*; may be expanded into
Cato will return, *when a few days have elapsed*.

As the adverbial sentence occupies the place, and follows the construction of an adverb, it may be used wherever a simple adverb is admissible.

Like the adverb, it is most frequently used to qualify the predicate of the sentence; as,

The horse fell, *whilst we were driving home*.

But it may take other positions likewise; e.g. that of the adverb forming part of the predicate in the sentence; thus,

- The table is *there*; may be expanded into
The table is, *where it used to be*.

Like simple adverbs and adverbial phrases, the adverbial sentence is chiefly employed to specify conditions of *Time*, *Place*, *Manner*, and *Cause*.

A. Adverbial Sentences relating to Time.

Adverbial sentences of time are used to designate:—1. Some point or period of time; 2. Duration of time; 3. Frequency or repetition of an event. Each of these ideas, moreover, may be regarded in relation to events which are either *simultaneous*, *antecedent*, or *subsequent* to the principal event.

1. Point or period of time; as,

He left home, just as the news arrived (*simultaneous*).

He left home, before the news arrived (*antecedent*).

He left home, after the news arrived (*subsequent*).

2. Duration of time; as,

He stood there, whilst the house was on fire (*simultaneous*).

He stood there, until the house was on fire (*antecedent*).

He has stood there, since the house was on fire (*subsequent*).

3. Repetition of an act; as,

He goes out, as often as they recommend him (*simultaneous*).

He goes out, as often as they had recommended him (*antecedent*).

He goes out, as often as they will recommend him to go (*subsequent*).

Remark.—Adverbial sentences of time are often abbreviated, either by changing the particle and verb into a participle, or by omitting the verb altogether; as,

The horse fell coming down the hill.
He learned Greek when an old man.

B. Adverbial Sentences relating to Place.

Like adjuncts of place, the adverbial sentences specify three distinct relations answering to the three interrogatives, *where?* *whither?* *whence?*

1. Rest in a place; as,

I will remain, wherever you desire.

2. Motion to a place; as,

Whither I go, ye cannot come.

3. Motion from a place; as,

He returned, from whence he came.

C. Adverbial Sentences of Manner.

Adverbial sentences of manner are used either to compare one

proposition with another, or to show the character of a given action by expressing its effects. They specify, therefore, the following ideas:—

1. Likeness or analogy; as,

He succeeds, as his father did before him.

He walks, as if he were tired.

As the hart panteth after water brooks, so panteth my soul after Thee.

When things do not go, as we wish, we must do, as we can.

2. Relation (i.e. intensity, proportion, equality, and inequality);

as,

The more you learn, the more remains for you to learn.

It becomes colder, the higher you ascend.

John is taller, than his brother [is].

The lion is not so fierce, as the tiger.

A bird flies swifter, than a horse can run.

3. Effect or consequence; as,

Many a scholar writes a letter, so that no one can read it.

Sometimes the storms are so fierce, that they tear up trees by the roots.

D. Adverbial Sentences of Cause.

Adverbial sentences of cause are employed to designate a variety of ideas in relation to the principal sentence, of which the principal are the following:—

1. Ground or reason; as,

The string breaks, because it is pulled too tight—(cause).

We learn the dead languages, because they afford great mental culture—(motive).

As things do not always turn out according to our wishes, we must accommodate our wishes to them—(logical reason).

2. Condition; as,

We shall reap, if we faint not.

I will take some, if you please.

I will not let thee go, except thou bless me.

3. Concession; as,

Although we disregard it, the evil day will surely come.

However fair may be his promises, he is not to be trusted.

We shall find him, whether he be alive or dead.

Great as he may be, we will resist him.

4. Purpose; as,

Honour thy father and mother, that it may be well with thee.

Study, that you may improve.

Remark.—An infinitive phrase is often used in English as equivalent to an adverbial sentence of purpose; as,

He expended money, to make himself popular.

Various other shades of idea are expressed by subordinate sentences which need not be distinctly enumerated, but which the student will easily learn to understand and classify for himself; as the following:—

Every one loves the common weal, in so far as it does not injure his own.

The wise man is honoured in adversity, while the fool is forgotten.

The wish was no sooner expressed, than it was fulfilled.

You spend more labour on it, than is necessary for your purpose.

There are many elliptical forms of expression used in connexion with adverbial clauses, some of which it is desirable to point out.

First let us look at some peculiar combinations with *as*. When *as* is used to introduce a correlative assertion, the ellipsis is generally quite obvious; e.g. John is as tall as William. Here we might clump the whole expression, *as tall as William*, together, and regard it as an attribute to John. But if we enter into the analysis of each word, the ellipsis must be supplied, and it will stand—John is as tall as William [is tall]. The case is precisely similar when '*as*' introduces a secondary attribute or adverbial adjunct: e.g. John runs as fast as William, which if analysed must be understood with the ellipsis, John runs as fast as William [runs fast].

There is another set of examples, however, in which *as* is not used correlatively; for example,

Overthwart the stream,

That, *as with molten glass*, inlays the vale, &c.

Again,

He assumed, *as a man of honour*, that what he said was true.

And again,

They all regarded Socrates *as a wise man*.

In all such cases there is not the least reason for expanding the clause into a sentence by imagining a predicate to be omitted. In the *first* instance, *as with molten glass*, is clearly an adjunct to the verb *inlays*, and may be so treated; in the second case, it is an enlargement to the subject *He*; in the third case, it is a kind of secondary or indirect object.

Turning from the conjunction *as* to *than*, we find another series of correlative clauses, which are not always so easy of interpretation as those above noticed. The simplest form of these cases occurs in expressions like

'My Father is greater than I,'

where the *I* is evidently the subject to the suppressed predicate, *am great*. The peculiarity here is, that the comparative form, as used in the principal sentence, becomes positive in the elliptical one; so that the mind has to evolve the Positive form out of the Comparative, and then supply it. The perplexity, which the scholar may feel in supplying this ellipsis, is heightened when the comparative form of the adjective is *irregular*, as in the line—

'Better to reign in Hell than serve in Heaven,'

where the ellipsis must really be as follows:—

To reign in Hell is better, than to serve in Heaven [is good].

In these instances with *than*, as in those before explained, the whole clause, taken together, is simply an attribute to some principal noun or verb; but the words cannot be analysed individually without an ellipsis being admitted and supplied.

We can now consider altogether that large class of examples in which a clause is introduced by such conjunctions as, *though, although, yet, whether, as soon as*, &c. These conjunctions, of course, can all legitimately introduce adverbial sentences; but the cases we have now in view are those, in which they introduce *phrases*, that might, perhaps, naturally be regarded at first as elliptical sentences, but which really are not so. The following examples will suffice to explain what we mean:—

'Blest he *though undistinguished from the crowd*
By wealth and dignity, who dwells secure,' &c.—*Task*, I. 506.

'Sounds inharmonious in themselves and harsh,
Yet heard in scenes, where peace for ever reigns,
And only there, please highly for their sake.'—*Task*, I. 207.

'Powers,
That put to proof his high supremacy,
Whether upheld by strength, or chance, or fate.'—*Paradise Lost*, I. 132.

'I cannot think thee yet so dull of heart
And spiritless, as never to regret
Sweets tasted here, and left as soon as known.'—*Task*, I. 650.

In all such cases as these, we should regard the phrase, not as being an elliptical sentence, but simply as an attribute to the word in connexion with which it stands. Of course, the conjunctions do not, in these cases, retain their purely *conjunctive force* as links between sentences; they approach nearer to the *adverb* in signification; but the whole force of the phrases themselves assumes a decidedly attributive character, and not at all a predicative one.

Connectives of the Adverbial Sentence.

We have before shown that there are two kinds of conjunctions:—

1. Those which connect two co-ordinate sentences together; as, Man proposes *and* God disposes; and 2. Those which connect the subordinate sentence to the principal; as, You learn quickly *because you are attentive*.

Of those which connect co-ordinate sentences, there are in all three kinds—one copulative, and two disjunctive, as shown in the following examples:—

- I. Copulative, as, John and Robert are here.
II. Disjunctive, { Distributive, . . John or Robert is here.
 { Adversative, . . John is well, but Robert is ill

The conjunctions of this class we shall consider more fully when we come to the Analysis of Compound Sentences and their connectives.

The remaining class of conjunctions are all used to connect adverbial sentences to the principal. To enumerate the connectives of the adverbial sentence, therefore, we must give a complete Table of this class of conjunctions, which will correspond with those which we before designated by the title *continuative*.

Remark.—Those few conjunctions which, in addition to the relative pronoun, are used to introduce the noun and the adjective-sentence, are also used to govern adverbial sentences, so that the connectives of the adverbial-sentence really comprehend *all the conjunctions* of this class.

Table of Continuative Conjunctions used to connect Subordinate Sentences with the Principal.

Adverbial Sentence.	Time.	Point of time.	{ As, as soon as, now that, when.
			{ Before, ere.
			{ After.
		Duration of time.	{ Whilst, until, as.
			{ As long as.
			{ When.
	Place.	Repetition.	{ Whenever.
			{ As often as.
			{ Where.
		Rest in.	{ Whither.
		Motion to.	{ Whence.
		Motion from.	{ As, as if, how.
	Manner.	Likeness or analogy.	{ As though.
			{ As . . . as.
		Relation.	{ Than (not), so . . as.
			{ According as.
		Effect or consequence.	{ That.
Cause.			{ So that.
			{ Because, for, as, whereas.
			{ Inasmuch as, forasmuch as.
		(Ground.	{ Since, seeing that.
		Condition.	{ If, unless.
			{ Except, in case, as.
		Concession.	{ Though, although, yet.
			{ Notwithstanding, however.
"		Purpose.	{ That, so that.
			{ In order that, lest (= that not).

Remarks.—(1.) Several of the conjunctions above enumerated, especially

those of manner and cause, are used *correlatively* with some adverbial expression preceding; thus,

As is used correlatively with *so, such, the same, &c.*

Yet *though.*

Or *whether.*

Than *more or less.*

That is sometimes used correlatively with *so, such.*

(2.) Care must be taken not to confound the adverbial with the adjective or the noun sentence, when they are introduced by the same conjunction; thus,

1. I know *where* he is. (Noun-sentence.)

2. I know the place *where* he is concealed. (Adjective-sentence.)

3. They found him *where* I indicated. (Adverbial-sentence.)

In No. 1, the subordinate sentence is object to the verb *know*. In No. 2, the subordinate sentence qualifies the noun *place*. In No. 3, the subordinate sentence qualifies the principal predicate *found*, and is therefore equivalent to an adverb.

Method of Analysing Complex Sentences.

Example 1.

A reader, unacquainted with the real nature of a classical education, will probably undervalue it, when he sees that so large a portion of time is devoted to the study of a few ancient authors, whose works seem to have no direct bearing on the studies and duties of our own generation.

First Scheme.

- | | | |
|---|---|----------------------------------|
| <p><i>a</i>, A reader, unacquainted with the real nature of a classical education, will probably undervalue it,</p> | } | Principal sentence to <i>b</i> . |
| <p><i>b</i>, when he sees</p> | } | Adv. sentence to <i>a</i> . |
| <p><i>c</i>, that so large a portion of time is devoted to the study of a few ancient authors,</p> | } | Noun-sentence to <i>b</i> . |
| <p><i>d</i>, whose works seem to have no direct bearing on the studies and duties of our own generation.</p> | } | Adj. sentence to <i>c</i> . |

Second Scheme.

Sentence.	Kind of Sentence.	Subject.	Predicate.	Object.	Extension.
^a A reader, unacquainted with the real nature of a classical education, will probably undervalue it,	Principal sentence to <i>b</i> .	A reader, unacquainted with the real nature of a classical education,	will undervalue	it	probably
^b when he sees	Adv. sentence to <i>a</i> .	[when] he	sees	—	—
^c that so large a portion of time is devoted to the study of a few ancient authors,	Noun-sentence obj. to <i>b</i> .	[that] so large a portion of time	is devoted	to the study of a few ancient authors, (indirect object.)	—
^d whose works seem to have no direct bearing on the studies and duties of our own generation.	Adj. sentence to <i>c</i> .	[whose] works	seem	to have no direct bearing on the studies and duties of our own generation. (nom. completion.)	—

Third Scheme.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. A reader, | PRINCIPAL SUBJECT. |
| 2. unacquainted with the real
nature of a classical edu-
cation, | } Participial phrase enlarging sub. |
| 3. will undervalue | |
| 4. it, | PRINCIPAL PREDICATE. |
| 5. probably, | Principal object. |
| 6. when he sees | Extension of principal predicate. |
| 7. that so large
a portion of time | Adv. sent. qualifying prin. sent. |
| 8. is devoted | } Subj. to noun-sentence after <i>sees</i> . |
| 9. to the study of
a few ancient authors, | |
| 10. whose works | Predicate to noun-sentence. |
| 11. seem to have | } Indirect object to noun-sentence. |
| 12. no direct bearing | |
| 13. on the studies and duties of
our own generation. | } Subj. to adj. sentence qualifying
<i>authors</i> . |
| | |
| | Predicate to the same. |
| | Obj. to compound pred. (11.) |
| | Prep. phrase dependent on verbal
noun <i>bearing</i> . |

Example 2.

'If death were nothing, and nought after death;
If, when men died, at once they ceased to be;
Returning to the barren womb of nothing,
Whence first they sprung, then might the debauchee,
Untrembling, mouth the heavens.'

First Scheme.

- | | |
|---|-------------------------------------|
| a, [If] death were nothing, | Adv. sent. to <i>f</i> (condition). |
| b, [And] nought [were] after death; | Adv. sent. to <i>f</i> (condition). |
| c, [when] men died, | Adv. sent. to <i>d</i> (time). |
| d, { If at once they ceased to be,
returning to the barren womb of
nothing, | Adv. sent. to <i>f</i> (condition). |
| e, Whence first they sprung, | Adj. sentence to <i>d</i> . |
| f, { Then, might the debauchee,
untrembling, mouth the heavens. | Principal sentence to a, b, d. |

Second Scheme.

Sentences.	Kind of Sentence.	Subject.	Predicate.	Object.	Extension.
^a If death were no- thing.	Adv. sent. to <i>f</i> .	If death	were nothing.	—	—
^b And nought after death;	Adv. sent. to <i>f</i> .	[And] nought	[were]	—	after death [time]
^c When men died	Adv. sent. to <i>d</i> .	[When] men	died	—	—
^d [If] at once they ceased to be, return- ing to the barren womb of nothing	Adv. sent. to <i>f</i> .	[If] they, return- ing to the barren womb of nothing,	ceased	to be	at once [time]
^e whence first they sprung,	Adv. sent. to <i>d</i> .	[whence] they	sprung	—	first [time]
^f Then might the de- bauchee, untrembling, mouth the heavens.	Principal sent to <i>a, b, d</i> .	The debauchee	might mouth	the heavens	then [time] un- trembling [man- ner].

Third Scheme.

- | | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1. If death were nothing, | { | Adverbial sentence of condition. |
| 2. [And] nought after death; | | Id., with predicate <i>were</i> understood. |
| 3. [When] men died, | { | Adverbial sentence of time qualifying <i>ceased</i> . |
| 4. [If] at once | | Extension of predicate <i>ceased</i> . |
| 5. They ceased | { | Subject and predicate of adverbial sentence of condition, co-ordinate with 1 and 2. |
| 6. To be, | | Inf. object to 5. |
| 7. Returning to the barren womb of nothing, | { | Participial phrase qualifying subject <i>they</i> . |
| 8. Whence first they sprung, | | Adjective sentence qualifying <i>womb</i> . |
| 9. Then might the debauchee mouth the heavens | { | Principal sentence. |
| 10. Untrembling. | | Participle used as adverb, extension to predicate <i>might mouth</i> .* |

SECT. V.—THE COMPOUND SENTENCE.

A sentence is called compound when it contains two or more principal sentences co-ordinate with each other.

There are a great many relations in which co-ordinate sentences stand to each other. The nature of the co-ordination being taken as the basis of the classification, the following fourfold division may be adopted:—1. Copulative co-ordination; 2. Disjunctive co-ordination; 3. Adversative co-ordination; 4. Illative co-ordination.

1. *Copulative Class.*

The uniting of two assertions together *copulatively*, always implies the *superaddition* of a second proposition to the first, so as to give a greater extent of meaning to the whole; as,

Hannibal crossed the Alps, and descended into the plains of Italy.

* Scheme 3 may be made out with greater or less detail, according to the wish of the teacher or the wants of the scholar.

Sentences of this kind are frequently placed together without any connexion; as,

The present flies swift as an arrow, the past stands ever still.

Reading maketh a full man, waiting a correct man, speaking a ready man.

This occurs more particularly when we wish to place two or more facts in *contrast*, or to direct attention to each of them *separately*.

Co-ordinate sentences are united copulatively by means of conjunctions, such as the following:—*And, moreover, furthermore, both . . . and, as well as, likewise, also, nor neither, &c.*

The man walked, *and* the boy ran.

He assisted us in our difficulty; he *also* counselled us in our danger.

Not only are the children uneducated, *but* the parents wish them to be so.

No conduct can be delicate without being correct, *nor* can it be correct without being delicate.

2. Disjunctive Class.

When two sentences are placed together, but their meaning disconnected or distributed, they form the case of *disjunctive co-ordination*. Such sentences are connected by the following conjunctions:—*Either, or, neither, nor, else, otherwise*; as,

He must return soon, *or* his affairs will go wrong.

Cæsar neither left the camp, *nor* gave opportunity of fighting to the enemy.

You must start soon, *otherwise* you will arrive too late.

3. Adversative Class.

When the co-ordinate parts of a sentence present two assertions in opposition to one another, they are said to be in *adversative co-ordination*.

Sometimes the second clause negatives the first; as,

He did not sail to China, *but* he held on his course to Australia.

But more commonly the second clause presents only a limitation or contrast to the first; as,

Abel was a shepherd, *but* Cain was a tiller of the ground.

The virtuous man dies, *but* virtue is eternal.

The form perishes; the matter, however, is indestructible.

4. *Illative Class.*

When the second of two sentences is placed in some kind of logical relation to the first, they are said to stand in *illative co-ordination* to each other; as,

The shadow of the earth, in every position, is round,
Consequently the earth is a globe.

The two most common logical relations in which co-ordinate sentences stand to each other are:—

1. The relation of *logical conclusion* or *inference*; as,

It is no honour to be rich, nor any sin to be poor; therefore it is foolish to be ashamed of poverty, or to strive after the appearance of being rich.

2. The relation of *effect* or *consequence*; as,

He was always an honourable man, and consequently his friends trusted him.

Connectives proper to Co-ordinate Sentences.

The connectives proper to co-ordinate sentences are:—

1. The connective, the distributive, and the adversative conjunctions (*vide* p. 24).

2. Those illative adverbs which, though fundamentally adverbial in their nature, yet perform the office of relating one sentence to another; as, *consequently, however, therefore, nevertheless, &c.*

Table of Conjunctions and Conjunctive Adverbs used to connect Co-ordinate Sentences.

Copulative,	{	And, also, likewise, as well as.
		Moreover, further, furthermore, both . . . and, also.
		Not only . . . but.
Disjunctive,	{	Either, or.
		Neither, nor.
		Otherwise, else.
Adversative,	{	But, on the other hand.
		Only, nevertheless.
		However, notwithstanding.
		On the one hand, on the other hand.
		Yet, still.

Illative,	{	Therefore, thereupon, wherefore.
		Accordingly, consequently.
		Hence, whence, then, and so.
		For.

Remark.—The adverbial connectives are frequently joined with a *conjunction proper* to form a connexion between sentences; as, The town was badly defended, *and therefore* became a prey to the enemy.

Contraction of Compound Sentences.

It often happens that different portions of a compound sentence have either the same subject, or the same predicate, or the same object, or the same extensions. In such cases, the element which is common to each co-ordinate part is not necessarily repeated; and the sentence is then said to be *contracted*.

Contractions may take place equally well, whether the connexion of the different sentences be copulative, disjunctive, adversative, or illative:—

1. Copulative; as,

God sustains, and governs the world.

2. Disjunctive; as,

Either a knave, or a fool must have done this.

3. Adversative; as,

Not a knave, but a fool has done it.

4. Illative; as,

Lions have claws, and consequently were intended to seize their prey.

In compound sentences there may be:—

1. Two or more subjects and one predicate; as,

The trade-winds, and monsoons are permanent.

2. Two or more predicates and one subject; as,

The air expands, and becomes lighter by heat.

3. Two or more objects to one predicate; as,

The sun illumines the mountains and the valleys.

4. Two or more similar extensions to one predicate; as,

Moisture is evaporated from the water, and even from the snow.

Remarks.—1. We often find a *manifold* extension, not only of the subject and predicate, but also of the object and the various extensions of the predicate. In many of these latter cases, we may conveniently regard the sentence as simple, and look upon the compound objects or extensions as being merely *enlargements*; as,

Compound Object.

God made the sun, moon, and stars, and all things in them.

Compound Extension.

He governs them all with wisdom, and truth, and justice.

A variety of contractions may be combined in one sentence, as follows:—

With every effort, with every breath, and with every motion—voluntary or involuntary—a part of the muscular substance becomes dead, separates from the living part, combines with the remaining portions of inhaled oxygen, and is removed.

Here there are four predicates, having but one subject, and three extensions of these predicates distinct from each other. To express the entire meaning of the sentence in separate sentences, we should have first to repeat the subject with each predicate, making four simple sentences, and then repeat each of those sentences with each of the extensions—making twelve sentences in all.

Method of Analysing Compound Sentences.

Example.

Bourdaloue is indeed a great reasoner, and inculcates his doctrines with much zeal, piety, and earnestness, but his style is verbose; he is disagreeably full of quotations from the Fathers, and he wants imagination.

First Scheme.

- | | |
|--|---|
| a Bourdaloue is indeed a great reasoner, | Principal sent. co-ord. with b, c, d, e. |
| b And inculcates his doctrines with much zeal, piety, and earnestness, | Prin. sent. cop. to a, contracted in sub. a. |
| c But his style is verbose; | Prin. sent. advers. to a and b. |
| d He is disagreeably full of quotations from the Fathers, | Prin. sent. cop. to c, advers. to a and b. |
| e And he wants imagination. | Prin. sent. cop. to c, d, advers. to a and b. |

Second Scheme.

Sentence.	Kind of Sentence.	Subject.	Predicate.	Object.	Extensions.
^a Bourdalone is indeed a great reasoner,	Prin. sent. co-ord. with <i>c, d, e</i> .	Bourdalone	is a great reasoner	—	indeed
^b and inculcates his doctrines with much zeal, piety, and earnestness,	Prin. sent. cop. to <i>a</i> .	[Bourdalone] (<i>continued</i>)	inculcates	his doctrines	with much zeal, piety, and earnestness,
^c but his style is verbose;	Prin. sent. advers. to <i>a, b</i> .	but his style	is verbose;	—	—
^d he is disagreeably full of quotations from the Fathers,	Prin. sent. cop. to <i>c</i> , advers. to <i>a, b</i> .	He	is full	Indirect Object. of quotations from the Fathers	disagreeably
^e and he wants imagination.	Prin. sent. cop. to <i>c, d</i> , advers. to <i>a, b</i> .	and he	wants	imagination.	—

All sentences, whether simple, complex, or compound, may now be analysed according to *Second Scheme*.

Example 1.

Some dream that they can silence when they will
 The storm of passion, and say, 'Peace, be still ;'
 But 'thus far and no farther,' when addressed
 To the wild waves, or wilder human breast,
 Implies authority, which never can
 And never ought to be the lot of man.

Example 2.

High above all a cloth of state was spread,
 And a rich throne, as bright as sunny day,
 On which there sat most brave, embellished
 With royal robes and gorgeous array,
 A maiden queen, that shone, as Titans say,
 In glittering gold and peerless precious stones.

Example 3 (for Practice).

Who only asks for humblest wealth,
 Enough for competence and health,
 And leisure, when his work is done,
 To read his book
 By chimney nook,
 Or stroll at setting of the sun ;
 Who toils as every man should toil,
 For fair reward, erect and free :
 This is the man—
 The best of men—
 This is the man, we mean to be !

Example 1.

Sentence.	Kind of Sentence.	Subject.	Predicate.	Object.	Extensions.
^a Some dream	Prin. sent. to <i>b</i> , <i>c</i> , <i>d</i> .	Some	dream	—	—
^b that they can silence the storm of passion,	Noun-sent. to <i>a</i> .	[that] they	can silence	the storm of pas- sion,	—
^c when they will,	Adv. sent. to <i>b</i> .	[when] they	will,	—	—
^d and say, Peace , <i>be</i> <i>still</i> ;	Noun sent. to <i>a</i> , co-ord. with <i>b</i> .	[they] <i>contract d in Sub.</i>	[can] say	'Peace, be still';	—
^e But 'thus far and no farther' implies autho- rity,	Prin. sent. advs. to <i>a</i> .	But 'thus far and no farther'	implies	authority;	—
^f when addressed to the wild waves, and wilder human breast,	Adv. sent. (time) to <i>c</i> .	it [<i>understood</i>]	[is] addressed	to the wild waves, and wilder human breast [<i>indirect</i> <i>only</i>]	—
^g which never can	Adj. sent. to <i>c</i> .	which	contracted. can [be the lot of man]	—	never.
^h and never ought to be the lot of man.	Adj. sent. to <i>c</i> , co-ord. to <i>g</i> .	and [which] (<i>con- tracted</i>)	ought to be the lot of man	—	never.

Example 2.

Sentence.	Kind of Sentence.	Subject.	Predicate.	Object.	Extensions.
^a High above all a cloth of state was spread,	Prin. sent.	A cloth of state	was spread	—	high above all,
^b And a rich throne as bright	Prin. sent. co-ord. with <i>a</i> , <i>contracted</i> in <i>pred.</i>	and a rich throne as bright	[was set]	—	—
^c as sunny day,	Adv. sent. to <i>b</i> contracted in <i>pred.</i>	as sunny day,	[is bright]	—	—
^d On which there sat most brave, embellished with royal robes and gorgeous array, a maiden queen,	Adj. sent to <i>b</i> .	a maiden queen most brave, embellished with royal robes and gorgeous array,	sat	—	there, on which
^e that shone in glittering gold and peerless precious stones,	Adj. sent. to <i>d</i> .	that	shone,	—	in glittering gold and peerless precious stones,
^f as Titans say.	Adv. sent to <i>c</i> .	as Titans	say.	—	—

CHAPTER II.

ON THE LAWS OF SYNTAX.

The Laws of Syntax may be divided into two classes: first, Those few general or fundamental principles which are common to nearly all languages; and secondly, Those more special rules which relate particularly to the English language as such.

1. The Fundamental Laws of Syntax.

The principles of analysis which have been already explained, show that there are only *three* main classes of relations in which words stand to each other in a sentence.

1. The relations between the subject and predicate. (*Predicative relation.*)

2. The relations between the predicate and its various enlargements. (*Objective relation.*)

3. The relations between the noun and its attributes. (*Attributive relation.*)

The fundamental law of the *predicative relation* is as follows:—

Rule I.—*The verb must agree with its subject in number and person.*

The subject is usually said to be in the *nominative* case. In the noun there is no distinction of inflexion to point out the subject or object; but in the pronouns such a distinction exists, and the proper nominative form must be carefully observed when the pronoun is used as subject to a sentence.

The fundamental law of the *objective relation* is as follows:—

Rule II.—*Active verbs and prepositions take nouns, or something equivalent to nouns, after them, as their object.*

Remark.—In the case of pronouns, the peculiar objective *form* must always be used after verbs and prepositions.

The fundamental law of the *attributive relation* is as follows:—

Rule III.—*Every adjective, or word used as an adjective, qualifies some noun expressed or understood, or otherwise distinguishes it.*

Attributes and distinctions may be expressed :—

- (1.) By the adjective ; as, *The man, this man, good man.*
- (2.) By the possessive pronoun, or the possessive case ; as, *My mother ; my father's house.*
- (3.) By a noun in apposition ; as, *William the Conqueror.*
- (4.) By prepositional and participial phrases ; as, *A man of virtue ; the sun shining in its strength.*

Rule IV.—*Adverbs modify the meaning of any words, which convey the idea of an action or attribute, and not the idea of existence.*

i.e. They may modify the verb, the adjective, and the adverb.

Rule V.—*Copulative and disjunctive particles unite together notions or assertions, which hold the same relation in any given sentence.*

Remark—The distinction should be remembered between conjunctions which merely couple words and sentences together co-ordinately, and those which introduce and govern subordinate sentences ; as,

1. John goes, and Mary follows. (*Co-ordinate.*)
2. If John go, Mary will follow. (*Subordinate.*)

The above rule applies only to the *former* class of conjunctions. Those conjunctions which we have termed *continuative*, may couple *dissimilar* moods and tenses.

2. Special Rules of Syntax.

Besides the above five fundamental laws of Syntax, which are the same for all languages, there are a number of special rules relating particularly to the English language, which should be kept in mind as aids either for speaking, composing, or parsing correctly. The most important of these special rules are the following :—

I. RULES RELATING TO THE NOUN.

1. The *nominative* case.

- (1.) Two singular nouns as subject, connected by *and*, will have a verb in the plural after them ; as, *John and Thomas are ready.*
- (2.) Two singular nouns as subject, connected by *or* or *nor*, will have the verb in the singular ; as *John or Thomas has done this.*

Remark.—If there are two nominatives connected by *or*, one singular and the other plural, the verb will agree with the plural ; as, *The carpenter or the masons have done this work.*

- (3.) A collective noun, in which the idea of unity is not promi-

nent, will generally take a verb in the plural ; as, The people were divided.

N.B.—In every case the number of the verb follows the *signification* of the subject rather than the *form*.

(4.) When a noun, followed by a participle, stands alone in a sentence, without governing or being governed by any other words, the noun is said to be in the *nominative absolute* ; as, Spring coming, the swallows appear. This we have already shown to be equivalent to an adverbial sentence.

(5.) A noun, used after the interjection *O*, is said to be in the *nominative of address* ; as, O death, where is thy sting ?

(6.) The verb *to be* takes two nominatives, the one before and the other after it ; as, Marlborough was a general.

Remark.—In these cases it is admissible for the verb to agree either with the nominative before or after it. Thus we can say with equal propriety, The wages of sin is death ; or, The wages of sin are death.

The intransitive verbs *appear, become, grow, seem, look*, and several passive verbs, as, *to be called, named, esteemed*, follow the same rule.

2. Rules relating to *apposition*.

(1.) A noun or pronoun standing in apposition to another noun or pronoun, is in the same case with it.

(2.) When nouns standing in apposition are in the possessive case, the *s* and the apostrophe are used with only one of them ; as, I have read a play of Shakspeare's, the great English poet.

(3.) The pronoun of the second person stands in apposition with the person addressed ; as, Ye valleys, sing !

(4.) The cognate nouns, before and after the verb *to be*, may be considered as in apposition with each other.

3. Rules relating to the *possessive case*.

(1.) When two nouns come together, the one denoting possession, in relation to the other, the first is put in the possessive case ; as, John's horse.

(2.) If there are two or more possessives together, the *s* and apostrophe are affixed only to the last ; as, John, William, and Mary's share.

(3.) The possessive form may sometimes be used with *of* ; as, A house of my father's. This, however, should only be used as

equivalent to 'One of my father's houses;' and is, consequently, only correct when a person is supposed to have several of the things referred to.

(4.) The possessive case is sometimes used alone, the second noun being understood; as, When you come to St. Paul's, turn to the left. Here *church* is understood.

4. Special rules relating to the *objective* case.

(1.) Neuter verbs sometimes take an object after them, particularly in the case of nouns denoting *time*, *space*, or *measurement*; as also in the case of those which are derived from the same root as the corresponding verb; as, I watched *three hours*. I walked *four miles*. Let me die *the death* of the righteous.

(2.) Some passive verbs take an object after them; as, I was asked *that question* yesterday.

(3.) Some transitive verbs, particularly verbs denoting *giving*, *lending*, *teaching*, *promising*, &c., take two objects after them; as, He gave me a book; John lent my friend a pound; the schoolmaster teaches his scholar arithmetic.

(4.) *Than* is followed by the objective case of the relative; as, A man, than whom I never saw a better. In all other instances the case of the word after *than* is determined by its place in the subordinate sentence of comparison; as, He loved John better than he (loved me). He loved John better than I (loved him).

Remark.—It is also sanctioned by good usage to use the objective of the first personal pronoun after *than*; as, 'He is taller than me.'

II. RULES RELATING TO PRONOUNS.

1. Personal pronouns must agree with the nouns for which they stand, in gender, number, and person; as, This is the man, who spent *his* life in Africa. I love my mother, *she* is always kind to me.

2. The relative must agree with its antecedent in gender, number, and person. Its case will be determined, not by the antecedent, but by its relation to the verb in its own sentence; as, This is the man, *who* sells cloth. This is the thing, *which* I despise.

3. If no noun come between the relative and the verb, the relative is in the nominative case; but if a noun come between, *that*

noun will be the subject of the verb, and the relative will be the object; as, The man, who honours me. The man, whom the king honours.

4. Sometimes a relative is governed by a preposition following it; as, The boy whom I spoke of is gone.

5. When several pronouns of different persons are joined together to form a subject, the verb agrees with the first person rather than the second, and the second rather than the third; as, You and I (we) go together. You and he (you) will come presently.

6. The objective case of the relative is often omitted; as, The man I saw yesterday; for 'The man whom I saw yesterday.'

7. *As* is sometimes used as the compound relative; e.g. The words are as follow. Here *as* is equivalent to *those which*.

III. RULES RELATING TO VERBS.

1. The *subjunctive* mood.

The form peculiar to the subjunctive mood is used only where *uncertainty* and *futurity* are both implied; as, If he arrive to-morrow, I shall be there.

2. The *infinitive* mood.

(1.) A verb may be put into the infinitive mood by another verb, by an adjective, and by a noun; as, I wish to go. He is worthy to be elected. His capacity to think is amazing.

(2.) Some verbs are followed by the infinitive mood without *to*, especially verbs signifying *to bid*, *to see*, *to make*, *to need*, *to feel*, *observe*, &c.; as, I made him go. I saw him do it. I made him give it up. You need not try.

The *to* before the infinitive mood is sometimes equivalent to the preposition *in order to*; as, He eats to live.

3. Verbs used *absolutely*.

The imperative, the infinitive, and the participle in *ing* are sometimes used absolutely, i. e. independently of other parts of the sentence; as, Many boys, say twenty, were present. To tell you the truth, I do not believe him. Judging at random, there were above a hundred.

4. Some verbs of motion form their compound tenses by *is* instead of *has*; as, He is come. They are gone.

5. Many verbs require a particular preposition after them ; e.g.

To depart *requires* from.

To pray *requires* for.

To despair ... of.

To differ ... from.

To cope ... with.

&c. &c.

In these cases (which are called *preposition-verbs*) the original verbs are usually intransitive, and become transitive by the addition of the preposition. The verb and the preposition together may then be regarded as one active verb, and the noun following can be considered as the object.

The passive form of preposition-verbs can also be employed ; as,

The Fule is departed from.

His life is despaired of.

He cannot be coped with.

6. If one verb depends upon another, they must observe a proper succession of tenses ; i.e. a verb in a purely past tense cannot be connected with a verb in a present tense, and contrarily ; e.g. I think he can succeed. I thought he could succeed.

7. Verbals in *ing* may govern an objective case like a verb, or may be used with a possessive case like a noun ; as, His opening the window was the cause of my cold. The enemy's deceiving him was the cause of his failure. The singing of the birds is delightful.

IV. RULES RELATING TO ADJECTIVES.

1. The adjective usually *precedes* the noun ; as, A good man.

2. If the adjective be qualified by some adverbial expression, or accompanied by another adjective, it usually *follows* the noun ; as, A man most just and true. A scholar proud of his ability.

3. In comparing two objects, the comparative degree should be used in preference to the superlative ; as, This house is *the better* of the two.

4. The distinguishing adjective should be repeated when two different objects are spoken of, but not otherwise ; thus we say, I have seen the iron and wooden bridge, *if only one is spoken of* ; but I have seen the iron and the wooden bridge, *if more than one is spoken of*.

ON THE PRINCIPLES OF PUNCTUATION.

The foregoing analysis enables us to comprise all the main principles of punctuation in a few simple rules :—

1. The subject, predicate, object, and simple adjuncts of a sentence should not be separated from each other by any point whatever.

2. Subordinate sentences and participial clauses should be separated by a comma.

3. Co-ordinate sentences should be separated by a semicolon.

4. When a larger division than the semicolon is required in the members of a sentence to make the sense apparent, a colon is used; as,

(1.) When a number of subordinate sentences have reference to one common apodosis.

(2.) When a co-ordinate sentence is employed as a distinct proposition, without any connecting particle.

5. When a sentence terminates, it should be indicated by a full stop.

Remarks.—1. In contracted sentences, the collateral subjects, predicates, objects, or adjuncts should be separated from each other by a comma.

2. As the rules of punctuation really depend on the connection of the *thoughts* in a passage, the comma may be dropped in the case of subordinate sentences, and the semicolon changed into a comma in that of co-ordinate sentences, whenever the connection of the thoughts is unusually close; as, He that made all things is God.

TABLE FOR PARSING.

NOUN.

Prop. } Com. } Abstr. }	noun:	sing. } number, } plur. }	{ subj. to the verb — : or, absolute. obj. after the verb (or prep.) —. possessive case, or, in apposition, }	attributive to —.
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ADJECTIVE.

Adj. in the	{ pos. comp. superl. }	degree,	{ limiting —. qualifying —.
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PRONOUN.

Pers. pron.	{ 1st 2d 3d }	person,	{ masc. fem. com. neut. }	gen.,	sing. } plur. }	num.,	{ subj. to the verb — or, absolute. obj. after the verb (or prep.) — possessive case, or, in } attri- bution, } butive to —.
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Possess. pron. qualifying —.

Rel. pron. refer. to — : — gender, — number, — person (case as above):

[AUXILIARY] VERB.

Verb aux. — indicating { passive voice.
perf. plup. fut. *tense*.
imper. cond. poten. *mood*.
progressive, emphatic *form* of verb.

[PRINCIPAL] VERB.

Reg. { trans. } verb. (If parsing orally, *name principal parts*, e.g. I *take*,
Irreg. { intrans. } I *took*, I have *taken*.)

Ind.	} mood,	present	} tense, act.	} voice,	1st	} pers.,	sing.	} num.,			
Imp.		past							2d	plur.	
Cond.		perfect							pass.		} agreeing with its subj. —
Poten.		pluperf.							3d		
Infinit.		future									
		fut. perf.									

PARTICIPLE.

Present. } part. { act. } from the verb —, attributive to —.
Past. } { pass. }

ADVERB.

Adverb of { place,
time,
manner,
&c. } qualifying the { verb —.
adj. —.
adv. —.

PREPOSITION.

Preposition, governing —.

CONJUNCTION.

Conjunction, { joining —.
governing —.

INTERJECTION.

Interjection.

PROSODY.

1. **POETRY** differs from **PROSE** in the object it has in view, and in the form which it employs.

It addresses itself primarily to the imagination and feelings, and tends to elevate and to please. Prose speaks to our reason; its object is to convince and to instruct.

2. In form, Poetry is bound by **METRE**, i. e. certain fixed rules with regard to the selection of words and their arrangement in **VERSES**. Prose is entirely free from all such restrictions, and subject only to the general laws of euphony.

3. The principal element of verse is **RHYTHM**. A second but not indispensable element is **RHyme**.

4. Rhythm is the undulation of sound produced by the alternation of **LONG** and **SHORT SYLLABLES**, or rather of accented and unaccented syllables.

5. In versification those syllables are considered long, which have an **ACCENT** or stress on them, and those are treated as short, which are unaccented.

6. Every word in the language has an accent, viz. the **WORD-ACCENT**, by which it is marked as a unit in the spoken language. In writing, the interval left between the words serves the same purpose.

7. Every word of two syllables has one accented and one unaccented syllable. In English, the majority of such words have the word-accent on the first syllable (the Penultimate), as righteous, pleasure, duty, taking, annals, eastern, legend.

8. There is, however, a great number of words of two syllables, which have the word-accent on the second syllable (the Ultimate), as content, remain, within, although, provide.

9. Sometimes it is the word-accent alone that distinguishes words, which otherwise would not differ in pronunciation; as, perfect and perfect, conjure and conjure, conduct and conduct, object and object.

10. In words of three syllables, the word-accent is seldom on the last, as in cavalier, devotée, disregard, entertain, invalid, magazine,

persevere, recollect. It is mostly on the Penultimate, as in uncovered, proportion, sustaining, dependent, nutritious, perfecting, selecteth, exulting, submissive, eternal, already, increasing, abundance; or it is on the Antepenult (the last but two), as in majesty, provident, towering, enemy, wickedly, patriot, memory.

11. The great bulk of the English language consists of words of one, two, or three syllables.* Perhaps no word (excepting compounds) derived from the Anglo-Saxon has four syllables.† They never have the word-accent on the last syllable, and rarely on the first, as arbitrary, arbitrarily, necessary, promontory, accuracy, allegory, apoplexy, acrimony, celibacy, controversy, desultory, but mostly on the Penultimate, as horizontal, ignominious, intercession, inundation, manifesto, misdemeanour, or on the Antepenultimate, as obliterate, occasional, original, proportionate, proximity.†

12. The English language contains a great number of words of which the pronunciation is varied, especially by the older poets, to suit the exigencies of versification, inasmuch as syllables can be cut off or added. This is done in the following instances:—

(1.) A consonant is often dropped to facilitate the contraction of two syllables, as ta'en, o'er, e'er, i'th, o'th, o'clock,—for taken, over, ever, if the, on the or of the, of the clock.

(2.) Elisions of vowels and consonants are of frequent occurrence, as I'm, 'tis, 'twas, 'twere, I'll, I'd, they're, I've, let's, for I am, it is, it was, it were, I will, I would, they are, I have, let us.

(3.) Vowels merge in the pronunciation so as to form only one syllable; as, power, jewel, ruin, bellowing, Raphael, mutual, to entrap, the upright.

(4.) Without throwing out the consonant which separates two syllables, poets contract these syllables, the consonant being generally a liquid (*l, m, n, r*), or a soft sibilant (*s, v, th*), as spirit, amorous, adventurous, temporal, difference, christening, reason, prison, miserable, neither, whether, other, poverty, riveted,

* These words are mostly borrowed directly or indirectly (through the French) from the Latin, and some, especially scientific terms, from the Greek. The greater number of them have been introduced since the formation of modern English, and this is the reason why they are not familiarly known to the uneducated.

† Let the student go over a portion of the poems in this volume, and note the respective numbers of words of one, two, three and more syllables, noting the accent in each, and marking how many of each class are accented on the last, and the several preceding syllables. He will be struck by the fact, that without counting proper names and compounds only two words of four syllables occur on the first ten pages.

heaven; thus 'spiritual' becomes a word of two syllables. (*Paradise Lost*, v. 402; l. 202.)

(5.) Words are expanded by the insertion of vowels, especially before liquids, as th(o)rough, board (pron. bo-ard), rememb(e)rance, child(e)ren, hand(e)ling, enfeeb(e)led, jugg(e)ler, Eng(e)land, wrest(e)ling, command(e)ment.

(6.) The verbal termination *ed* of the past tense and the participle is sounded in verse, even where it has been dropped in prose, as laugh'd for laugh'd.

(7.) The short vowel preceding the last syllable is sounded in such terminations as the following:—

ion, as in confusi-on,	ier, as in soldi-er,
ia, . Porti-a,	iel, . Dani-el,
iage, . marri-age,	ua, . Padu-a,
can, . oce-an,	ius . Demetri-us,

and in others of a similar nature.

13. The words with their given number and order of accented and unaccented syllables are the material for the formation of rhythmical lines or verses.

14. The units of which verses are made up, are not single syllables, but complexes of syllables called FEET.

15. A foot is bound together by a rhythmical accent called *ARSIS*. This accent, though generally coinciding with the word-accent, must be distinguished from it. It does not exist in prose, and it is subject to certain laws, treated of below (No 24).

16. A metrical foot consists at least of two syllables, of which one is long and the other short.

17. If the first syllable is long and the second short, the foot is called a TROCHEE $\text{— } \text{— } \text{— } \text{—}$, as righteous, pleas-ure.

18. If the first syllable is short and the second long, the foot is called an IAMBUS $\text{— } \text{— } \text{— } \text{—}$, as whereto, content.

19. A foot of three syllables admits of several varieties; but only two of these, and these very rarely, are used in English versification, viz:—

(1.) The DACTYL, which consists of one long syllable followed by two short ones, $\text{— } \text{— } \text{— } \text{—}$, as gen-eral, sancti-ty, sepa-rate, regu-lar.

(2.) The ANAPEST, formed by two short and one long syllable, $\text{— } \text{— } \text{— } \text{—}$, engi-neer, impo-lite, inter-vene, over-nat.

20. A foot is not necessarily made up of one word. It may consist of separate words as—to work, of heaven, his foe; or of parts of words, as—

Those bar | barous ag | es past.

If the ends of the metrical feet always coincided with the ends of words, the rhythm would become intolerably monotonous and unpleasant.

21. Of the various rhythms formed by the feet just enumerated, the Iambic is by far the most common in English.

22. Iambic verses are of different length, according as they are formed by two or more Iambic feet. The most important Iambic verse is that which consists of five feet or ten syllables, and which, if unrhymed, is called **BLANK VERSE**. It is the regular metre of the English dramatists; it was employed by Milton for Epic poetry, and by Cowper and others for didactic and other poems.

We shall enter more fully into the examination of the structure of this verse, in which the greater part of the foregoing selection is written.

23. The blank verse is admirably adapted for the drama, as of all verses it approaches nearest to prose, and therefore suits the dialogue, which, in almost any other verse, would appear strained and unnatural; yet it is sufficiently rhythmical to raise the language of the drama above mere prose. Its aptness for Epic poetry, however, is very questionable, as it lacks weight and dignity.

24. The English language lends itself very readily to form the Iambic rhythm, so much so, that entire verses may be found in several prose writers, which escaped them unwittingly. The 'Spectator,' No. 459, has the following:

For instance, in that disputable point,
Of persecuting men for conscience' sake,
Besides embittering their minds with hatred, &c.

25. Under the influence of the Iambic rhythm the laws regarding the accent of words are considerably modified. In every word of three syllables, as we have already seen (No. 10), one syllable has the word-accent. This syllable has also the Arsis, or verse-accent. But, as in an Iambic line, every third syllable must have the Arsis, the following effects are produced:—

(1.) If the word-accent is on the first syllable, the third syllable, though necessarily destitute of the word-accent, receives a verse-accent, imparted to it by the undulating force of the Iambic rhythm, and is measured as, - - - ; as,

That to the height of this great *argument*
I may assert eternal *Providence*,
And *justify* the ways of God to man.

(2.) If the word-accent is on the last syllable, the first syllable receives an Arsis for the same reason, and the word is measured as _ ˘ _ as *sérénade*.

(3.) If the word-accent is on the second syllable, the first and third must remain unaccented, but the syllable which precedes the word and that which follows receives the Arsis; as,

Of that forbidden tree, whose mortal taste—
In the beginning, how the Heavens and Earth—
Invoke thy aid to my *adventurous* song—
From their *Creator* and transgress His will—
Hurled headlong flaming from the *ethereal* sky
To bottomless *perdition* there to dwell.

26. The same law applies to words of more than three syllables. Starting from the word-accent, every second syllable counting either forwards or backwards, must have a verse-accent; as,

In *adamantine* chains and penal fire,
Who durst defy the *Omnipotent* to arms—
That with *reiterated* crimes he might—
Irreconcilable to our grand foe.

27. The great number of words of one syllable, which are not notional (nouns, adjectives, verbs, or adverbs), but flexional (articles, conjunctions, prepositions), are under the same influence of the adjoining accented syllable, just as if they were not separate words, but parts of the adjoining words. Thus, in

Sweet Auburn! loveliest village of the plain,
of has the rhythmical accent, because it is separated by an unaccented from an accented syllable. But in

Dear lovely bowers of innocence and ease,
of is depressed into an unaccented syllable by the adjoining accents.

28. The blank verse consists of five Iambic feet, which may be thus represented: ˘ — ˘ — ˘ — ˘ — ˘ —.

29. In Shakspeare one syllable is often added, without altering the character of the verse, except in making the termination less abrupt and strong, as,

My ventures are not in one bottom trusted.
It is seldom, however, that several verses of eleven syllables succeed each other. Milton uses them very sparingly; as,
Of rebel angels, by whose aid aspiring.

30. Instead of the blank verse, we often meet in the drama with the Iambic Senarius, i. e. an Iambic verse of six feet: ˘ — ˘ — ˘ —

˘ — ˘ — ˘ — ˘. This verse is sometimes employed to arrest the attention, and to mark the passage out from the other lines, as in, the *Merchant of Venice*, Act. II. Scene 7, where the inscriptions on the caskets are expressed in such verses:

Who chooseth mé, shall gain what many mén desire.
Who chooseth mé, shall get, as much as hé deserves;
Who chooseth mé, must give and házard ál he háth.

Yet many verses of this class seem to be used without any especial object, merely to suit the convenience of the poet.

31. To vary the uniformity of the Iambic metre, the classical poets used to substitute other metrical feet for the pure Iambus. English poets have availed themselves of this liberty only to a limited extent, as the language does not admit of the metrical refinement of the ancients.

32. The best substitute for the Iambus is the Spondee, consisting of two long syllables. This, however, can be but rarely employed, as pure Spondees can only be produced in English in compound words, e.g. breast-plate, and by joining separate words. Thus a very good effect can be produced; as, for instance, in the beautiful lines of Pope:

When Ajax strives some rock's vast weight to throw
The line too labours, and the words move slow,

Milton also employs the Spondee; as,

Of man's first disobedience and the fruit.—*Paradise Lost*, l. 1.

As one great furnace.—*Paradise Lost*, l. 62.

33. The ancients never used the Trochee instead of the Iambus, as its rhythm, which descends or falls from long to short, is entirely opposed to the rising or ascending Iambic rhythm. But in English poetry the Trochee is very frequently found in the place of the Iambus, and Milton, in particular, has purposely adopted it very often, in order to take from the Iambic rhythm some of its light tripping character, and by making it rougher, to render it more suitable for epic poetry:

Favoured of heaven so highly, to fall off.

Regions of sorrow, doleful shades, where peace.

34. The Anapest (˘ ˘ —) is used by the ancients as a substitute

for the Iambus. There are verses in Shakspeare where the same seems to have been done; but the cases are exceptional, and many of them very doubtful. In the case of many words it is difficult for us to know, what was the exact pronunciation in Shakspeare's time. In other instances these verses are corrupt, and if the correct reading could be restored, it would perhaps be found, that the Anapæst is spurious. Nevertheless, it must perhaps be admitted, that Shakspeare has occasionally allowed himself a license in using an Anapæst instead of an Iambus, and especially when proper names occurred; as,

Did pretty Jessica, like a little shrew.

35. Each verse is separated from that which follows, by a rhythmic PAUSE. This is effected by the coincidence of the termination of a word with the termination of the last foot. A logical pause is generally found at the same place, i.e. the last word of a line is logically more closely connected with the preceding words of the same line than with the beginning of the following line. This is, however, far from being a universal rule. Milton, particularly, often avoids a logical pause at the end of his lines, and Shakspeare places at the end of verses even such words as *and*, *if*, and others which are intimately connected with what follows; as,

In such a place such sum, or sums, as are

Expressed in the condition.—*Merchant of Venice*, i. 3.

Come, my sweet wife, my dearest mother, and

My friends of noble touch, when I am forth.—*Coriolanus*, iv. 2.

Mistake me not, to save my live; for if

I had feared death, of all the men i' th' world.—*Ibid.* iv. 5.

36. Logical pauses are not limited in English Blank Verse to any particular locality.* Their variety contributes much to diversify and enliven the rhythm. Where they occur frequently, they serve to indicate an unsettled or agitated mind, whereas their absence shows an easy unruffled temper. This will appear on examining the opening lines of the *Merchant of Venice*:—

Antonio. In sooth, || I know not, why I am so sad; ||

It wearies me; || you say, || it wearies you; ||

But how I caught it, || found it, || or came by it, ||

* The laws which, in classical metres, regulate the *cæsura* (pauses) have no bearing at all on English versification. With the exception of the old ballad metre and the Alexandrine, no English verses require a *cæsura* in a fixed place of every verse.

What stuff 'tis made of, || whereof it is born, ||
I am to learn ; ||

And such a want-wit sadness makes of me, ||
That I have much ado || to know myself ||

Salario. Your mind is tossing on the ocean ; ||
There, where your argosies, with portly sail, ||
Like signiors and rich bugghers, on the flood, ||
Or, || as it were, || the pageants of the sea, ||
Do overpeer the petty traffickers, ||
That curt'sy to them, || do them reverence, ||
As they fly by them with their woven wings. ||

It is, of course, to some extent, a matter of taste and feeling to say where a logical pause is to be found.

37. The most strongly marked pauses are in those lines which are spoken partly by one and partly by another person ; as,

Shylock. Cursed be my tribe,
If I forgive him.

Bassanio. Shylock, do you hear ?

The words, ' If I forgive him. Shylock, do you hear ? ' form a perfect verse ; but as they are spoken by two persons, there occurs a marked pause in the middle.

38. In the great majority of cases, when a verse is thus divided between several speakers, the rhythm is not destroyed by the necessary pause, but it flows on with perfect regularity in the second portion, until the verse is completed. But there are also numerous passages in Shakspeare where that is not the case.

39. Sometimes the verse remains incomplete, but the rhythm is good as far as the verse is carried ; as, *Merchant of Venice*, iv. 1 :—

Portia. It is so. Are their balance here to weigh
The flesh ?

Shylock. I have them ready.

Portia. Have by some surgeon, Shylock, on your charge.

40. Sometimes the beginning of the verse and the end are correct, but at the middle there is a syllable too many or too few, so that the rhythm is not continued unbroken ; as, *Merchant of Venice*. III. 4 :—

Portia. Which I will practise.

Nerissa.

Why, shall we turn to men ?

And in *Midsummer Night's Dream*, iv. 1 :—

Helena. Mine own and not mine own.

Demetrius.

Are you sure ?

41. It is a similar license when incomplete verses occur in the middle of a speech ; as,

What stuff 'tis made of, whereof it is born,
I am to learn;

and when they occur at the end or beginning of speeches, or when a whole speech consists of one. The last form of incomplete verses is particularly frequent in exclamations.

42. Sometimes the irregularity is carried so far, that the metre is altogether destroyed, as in *Julius Cæsar*, IV. 3:—

Brutus. And chastisement doth therefore hide his head.

Cassius. Chastisement !

Brutus. Remember March, the Ides of March remember !

Here the exclamation of Cassius does not fit into the verse. And in the same scene :—

Cassius. Older in practice, abler than yourself
To make conditions.

Brutus. Go to ; you are not, Cassius,

Cassius. I am.

Brutus. I say you are not.

Cassius. Urge me no more, I shall forget myself ;
Have mind upon your health, tempt me no further.

Brutus. Away, slight man !

Cassius. Is 't possible ?

Brutus. Hear me, for I will speak.

43. By such a disregard of the metre Shakspeare sometimes suddenly shifts the dialogue from verse to prose ; as, *Merchant of Venice*, I. 1 :—

Antonio. I that anything now ?

Bassanio. Gratiano speaks an infinite deal of nothing ; more than any man in all Venice.

44. The Trochaic rhythm is comparatively rare in English poetry. We find it frequently in songs, interspersed in the Shaksperian dramas ; as, in the *Merchant of Venice*, III. 2 :—

You that choose not by the view,
Chance as fair, and choose as true !
Since this fortune falls to you,
Be content and seek no new.
If you be well pleased with this,
And hold your fortune for your bliss,
Turn you, where your lady is,
And claim her with a loving kiss.

It is also introduced for the sake of variety into the *Prisoner of Chillon*, I. 17 :—

We were seven, who now are one, &c.

A short syllable is often prefixed (as in lines 6 and 8 of the above short poem), and thus the Trochaic metre changed into the Iambic.*

45. The Dactylic rhythm occurs in imitation of the classical Hexameter, as in Longfellow's *Evangeline*; and in a few original metres, as in Hood's *Bridge of Sighs*—

O'ne more anfortunate,
Weary o' breath,
Rashly impertunate,
Gone to her death.

46. The Anapestic rhythm is used but rarely. As an illustration, may be quoted Cowper's *Alexander Selkirk*—

I am monarch of all I survey,
My right there is none to dispute;
From the centre all round to the sea
I am lord of the fowl and the brute.

47. The second element of verse (besides rhythm) is RHYME (No. 3).

Rhyme is a similarity of sound produced by two or more words terminating in the same vowel sounds, or in the same consonantal sounds, preceded by the same vowel sounds; as, *blow—show*; *revive—deprive*; *flowers—showers*.

48. It is necessary that the syllables which produce the rhyme be accented. Therefore, if the word-accent is on the penultimate, as in *roses*, no rhyme is produced by the occurrence of *es* alone in another word; as, for instance, in *rises*; but the preceding syllable also must agree in sound; as, *clôses*.

49. The same rule holds, when the accent is on the antepenultimate; as, *satiety—variety*; *utility—nobility*.

50. As rhymes are intended to produce an effect, not on the eye, but on the ear, the spelling of words is immaterial; and the following rhymes, therefore, are perfectly good: *Lead—beed*; *groove—move*; *soul—coal*; *bud—flood*; *eyes—arise*; *rouse—brows*; *shade—surveyed*; *sung—young*; *hour—power*.

51. Imperfect rhymes are those which differ in sound, whether they agree in spelling or not, as *Love—prove*; *mood—wood*; *most—lost*; *cheat—great*; *noises—voices*; *heaven—given*; *entreats—frets*.

* How these two rhythms play into each other is apparent from Milton's *Allegro* and *Penseroso*.

Yet the poverty of the language in perfect rhymes, and the necessities of the verse, have often driven even poets of the first order to admit such imperfect rhymes. It must, however, not be supposed, that they can ever cease to be blemishes.

52. When two verses are joined together by the rhyme they are called couplets. Of such the *Deserted Village* is entirely composed. This arrangement of rhymes may be expressed thus : *aa, bb, cc, &c.*

53. When, of four successive verses, the first and third and the second and fourth are rhymed (*abab*, as in *Retribution*, p. 1; *Virtue*, p. 5); or the first and fourth and the second and third (*abba*, as in *Bereft Friendship*, p. 7); the four lines form a whole, called Stanza.

54. Stanzas can be formed of any number of lines, and their variety is very great, according to the number of lines, the arrangement of the rhymes, the number of feet, and the choice of rhythm.

55. The most celebrated Stanza in English poetry is the Spenserian; it is an imitation of the Italian Ottava, consisting of eight Iambic verses of five feet, followed by one of six feet (a Senarius). There are only three rhymes, disposed in the following manner:
ababbcbcc—

A gentle knight was pricking on the plaine,
Ycladd in mightie armes and silver shielde
Wherein old dints of deepe woundes did remaine,
The cruel markes of many a bloody fildes;
Yet armes till that time did he never wield:
His angry steede did chide his foming bitt,
As much disdayning to the curbe to yield:
Full jolly knight he seemed, and faire did sitt,
As one for knightly giusts and fierce encounters fitt.

56. The good reciting of poetry very much depends upon the skill with which the rhythmical and the logical accents are blended. These two accents are entirely independent of each other; they sometimes coincide, but often they do not, and then the logical accent must override the rhythmical. If the rhythm is once fully impressed on the reader, he will have no difficulty in making it apparent, though he must throughout be chiefly guided by the logical accent. This is particularly important in rhymed verses; for the rhyme is sufficiently marked, and is sure to make an impression upon the ear, without any stress on it beyond what the sense requires.

Comparative Table of Tenses in English, Latin, French, German, Greek,

ACTIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

APPENDIX.

The following Table of Tenses (which I have taken from Mason's English Grammar) may be found useful to the Student.

	English.	Latin.	Greek.	French.	German.
Present { Indefinite Imperfect Perfect	He writes He is writing He has written	scribit scribit scripsit	γράφει γράφει ἔγραψε	il écrit il écrit il a écrit	er schreibt er schreibt er hat geschrieben
Past { Indefinite Imperfect Perfect	He wrote He was writing He had written	scripsit scribebat scripserat	ἔγραψε ἔγραψε ἔγγραφε	il écrivit il écrivait { il avait écrit il eut écrit }	er schrieb er schrieb er hatte geschrieben
Future { Indefinite Imperfect Perfect	He will write He will be writing He will have written	scribet scribet scripserit	γράφει γράφει —	il écrira il écrira il aura écrit	er wird schreiben er wird schreiben er wird geschrieben haben
Perfect of continued action	He has been writing, &c.	—	—	—	—

PASSIVE VOICE.
INDICATIVE MOOD.

	English.	Latin.	Greek.	French.	German.
<i>Present</i> <i>Indefinite</i> <i>Imperfect</i> <i>Perfect</i>	It is written It is being written It has been written	scribitur scribitur {scriptum est } {scriptum fuit }	γράφεται γράφεται γράφεται	il est écrit — il a été écrit	es wird geschrieben es wird geschrieben es ist geschrieben worden
	It was written It was being written It had been written	{scriptum est } {scriptum fuit } scribebatur	εγράφθη εγράφετο εγγράπτο	il fut écrit — {il avait été écrit } {il eut été écrit }	es wurde geschrieben ben es wurde geschrieben ben es war geschrieben worden
	It will be written It will be being written It will have been written	scribetur scribetur scriptum erit	γραφθήσεται γράφεται γεγράφεται	il sera écrit — il aura été écrit	es wird geschrieben werden es wird geschrieben werden es wird geschrieben worden seyn
<i>Past</i> <i>Indefinite</i> <i>Imperfect</i> <i>Perfect</i>					
<i>Future</i> <i>Indefinite</i> <i>Imperfect</i> <i>Perfect</i>					

EXERCISES

ADAPTED TO

MORELL'S GRAMMAR AND ANALYSIS.

LONDON
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A SERIES OF

GRADUATED EXERCISES,

ADAPTED TO

MORELL'S GRAMMAR AND ANALYSIS.

BY

J. D. MORELL, M.A., LL.D.

²
ONE OF HER MAJESTY'S INSPECTORS OF SCHOOLS.

NEW EDITION.

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1867.

PREFACE.

THE object of this little book is to put into the Teacher's hand a Graduated Series of Exercises, intended to *accompany* his daily instructions in English Grammar and Analysis. They are especially adapted for *home tasks*, and so divided that each number may generally furnish one good evening's lesson. As I have recommended in the Grammar, that the study of the Analysis of Sentences should begin *simultaneously* with that of the Parts of Speech, so I should recommend *here*, that the Exercises in Part I. and Part III. should be commenced together and performed alternately.

The Exercises on the Structure of Words I have put at the end, as they form an entirely separate department of study. I have also appended a pretty full vocabulary of Latin, Greek, and Saxon Roots, to which the scholar can refer in seeking derivations.

The Exercises printed within brackets are somewhat more difficult than the rest, and can be omitted if thought desirable particularly by the younger scholars.

Bowdox, August 1857

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PART I.

EXERCISES ON THE CLASSIFICATION OF WORDS.

I. EXERCISES ON THE NOUN.

1. Give four names of persons, eight names of places, and twelve names of things.

(The teacher should explain and illustrate the difference between the names of things and the things themselves.)

2. Name any of the *qualities* which the persons or things around you possess ; thus,

The *greenness* of the grass. The *learning* of the teacher, &c.

(Give twenty examples of this.)

3. Select the nouns from the following sentences, and say whether they are proper, common, or abstract ; and why ?

Linen is white. Water is transparent. Reading is useful. London and Paris are cities. Switzerland is a mountainous country. England was conquered by the Normans. Copper is a mineral. Time passes quickly. Snow dazzles by its whiteness. Man is a thinking being. Spring is a pleasant season. Ploughing is a healthy occupation. The swallow flies with great swiftness.

Fountains all bordered with moss,

Where the harebells and violets grow.

Henry I. was the son of William the Conqueror. Napoleon was banished to the island of St. Helena. Bees gather honey all the day. Studies serve for ornament and for delight. Hay-making is one of the most pleasant occupations of an English summer. In May, every field with hedges and bushes is a bird meadow. The market boat is on the stream. The corn fields are flooded.

I doubt if he who lolls his head,

Where idleness and plenty meet,

Enjoys his pillow or his bread,

As those, who earn the meals they eat.

Birds, joyous birds of the wandering wing,
 Whence is it ye come with the flowers of spring?
 "We come from the shores of the green old Nile,
 From the land where the roses of Sharon smile.
 From the palms that wave through the Indian sky,
 From the myrrh-trees of glowing Araby."

(The teacher may extend this exercise by pointing out a page or two from a reading-book, to be treated in the same way as the above exercise.)

[4. Select the *common* nouns from the following sentences, putting the class names, the collective names, and the names of materials, each in a list by themselves:—

The bird is whetting his beak. The flags are waving in the air. Coal is an opaque black mineral. They landed at Liverpool after an agreeable voyage. The coachman has harnessed the horses. Magnificent blocks of silver have been found in Norway. Some wild animals live in caves. Have you watered the plants? Pins are made of brass wire. At Northwich, in Cheshire, are one or two beds of rock-salt. Gutta-percha is the produce of a plant. The lowing herd winds slowly o'er the lea. Paper is chiefly manufactured from linen and cotton rags. It was a brave army. The dolphin is one of the sea mammalia.

Leaves have their time to fall,

And flowers to wither at the north-wind's breath.

Cork is the bark of a small tree which grows in Spain, Portugal, the south of France, and north of Africa. Coral is produced by marine animals. The bees hummed busily round the wild thyme, while beetles and butterflies flew cheerfully about. He was surrounded by his soldiers and his staff. A flight of birds perched on the beech-trees. A host of enemies attacked him. A swarm of bees hung from a bough. He was surrounded by troops of friends.]

[5. Select the *abstract* nouns from the following sentences, putting the names of qualities, of actions, and of states or conditions, each in a list by themselves:—

The whiteness of the snow dazzles the eyes. The brilliancy of the lights half blinded me. Naples is in great commotion. I have always preferred cheerfulness to mirth. The peace of the valley is fled. Innocence is the best, wisdom and honesty the greatest advantage. The noblest of victories is forgiveness. Honour, justice, reason, and equity go a great way in procuring prosperity to those who use them. At the battle of Poitiers, John exhibited more courage than ability, more of the soldier than the general. He received his visitors with great condescension. His popularity was speedily shaken. His equanimity was only temporarily ruffled. Hunting and dancing occupied almost all his time. His thoughts were with the past. The health of the king was now rapidly giving way. His impatience and his obstinacy were terrible. He had no master but nature and solitude. The English are capable of a sublime resolution. The Normans were all fond of hunting. The tools of our time are steam, ships, printing, money, and education. She looked full of life, health, and energy. Printing was invented in the reign of Henry VII. Leaping is a very healthy exercise. Reading

maketh a full man, conversation a ready man, and writing an exact man.]

(The two preceding exercises may be extended by the teacher pointing out suitable portions from a reading-book, from which the nouns may be selected and classified as above.)

6. In the following sentences, change the common nouns into corresponding abstract ones; thus, The tyrant is hateful. Tyranny is hateful.

The artist imitates nature.

The musician has power to soothe the savage breast.

The poet beautifies all nature.

The learned are highly esteemed.

The poor are always amongst us.

The physician cured the child.

The child is confiding.

Man is the noblest work of God.

The judge condemned him.

The coward is despised.

The idle are generally mischievous.

The rich can purchase the good things of this world.

The hero is admired.

The boaster is universally doubted.

The young are seldom patient.

Repentants merit forgiveness.

The weak and the tender are useless in war.

The warrior destroys human life.

(The pupil may find a dozen cases similar to the above for himself, giving both the common and the abstract form of the noun.)

[7. Point out when the nouns in the following examples are used as proper names, as class names, as names of materials, and as abstract nouns:—

The host of the inn was very attentive.

A host of Indian warriors rushed across the plain.

The handles of knives are sometimes made of horn.

The horn of the stag is branched.

Cape Horn is at the south of South America.

A cold bath is very bracing.

Bath is a fine city.

Will you walk with me in Dunsinane wood?

There is a great deal of wood in the forest.

Tables and chairs are made of wood.

Each particular hair did stand on end,

Like quills upon the fretful porcupine.

The German women have very fine hair.

Charles James Fox was an English statesman.

The fox is a cunning animal.

His office is in New Street.

He held that office twenty years.

His office is to examine into the state of education in England.

- The duty of a child is to obey its parents.
 The duty on tobacco is very high.
 That house is unoccupied.
 The House will assemble on the 1st of February.
 Megara is one of the wonders of the world, and the aspect of it fills
 the beholder with wonder and admiration.
 Will you be so good as to take the will for the deed?
 The miser died, and left no will.]

II. EXERCISES ON THE ADJECTIVE.

8. Select the adjectives from the following sentences :—

- Sweet sleep is refreshing.
 Silver is white.
 Water is transparent.
 The beautiful moon is hidden behind the dark clouds.
 Silk-worms are curious and industrious little creatures.
 Skye terriers are good house dogs.
 London is the most populous city in the world.
 Green fields are refreshing to the eye.
 There are high mountains and deep valleys in Switzerland.
 There are some beautiful flowers in our garden.
 There are hot-water springs in Iceland.
 Red and white roses are growing over our house.
 Anger is a short madness.
 The long grass of the American prairies sometimes catches fire.
 Many poisonous plants grow wild.
 The bells are ringing a merry peal.
 Few young people dislike dancing.
 No good children are disobedient.
 By dimpled brooks and fountains' brim,
 The wood-nymphs decked with daisies trim
 Their merry wakes and pastimes keep.
 Meadows trim with daisies pied,
 Shallow brooks and rivers wide.

(The pupil, to continue the exercise, may select adjectives from a page or two of his reading-book.)

9. Place one or more suitable adjectives of *quality* beside the following words :—

Picture, girl, song, glass, grass, lamb, castle, neighbour, boy, mountain, river, ox, rock, sparrow, sea, dog, prince, forest, nest, garden, water, boat, day, hoop, cloak, peacock, moon, house, stream, tower, tree.

10. Select the adjectives from the following sentences, and say whether they express quality or quantity, or whether they are used simply to distinguish :—

- I heard this wonderful story when I was a little child.
 The pelican is a large bird, with a long straight bill.

The showers were short, the weather mild,
 The morning fresh, the evening smiled.
 The best fruits grow in warm countries.
 There were few young people present.
 These flowers bloom all the year round.
 Look at this picture, then on that.
 Will you bring me a glass of clear fresh water?
 The yellow water-lily spread its broad flat leaves on the margin of the
 river.
 There are many fine pictures in that old castle.
 Queen Anne was a weak but good woman.
 The way was long, the wind was cold,
 The Minstrel was infirm and old.
 Blackbirds are the noisiest of all our feathered songsters.
 There were many brave soldiers wounded.
 This house is colder than yours.
 Which of these large oranges will you have?
 One swallow will not make a summer.
 Him walking on a sunny hill he found.
 Victoria is the queen of this country.

[11. Point out the adjective of *quantity*,—arranging separately those which are definite, indefinite, and distributive.

That dog has followed me all day.
 I have seen him two or three times.
 One room was full of pictures.
 Many ships were lost in the storm.
 Friends awaited me in every town.
 Brave Kempenfeldt went down with twice four hundred men.
 He pressed each man's hand.
 England expects every man to do his duty.
 All men are sons of God.
 For many thousand men, said he,
 Were slain in the great victory.
 I have some fine trees in my garden.
 All Naples is in violent commotion.
 Many rabbits have been shot, but few hares.
 We have got over our first difficulties.
 There are seven days in a week.
 Each man worked with one hand only, and the other hand held a
 weapon.
 He passed a row of nine or ten others.
 France under the Republic became one large camp: all her men and
 many of her boys joined the army.
 Admiral Howe, with seven ships, blockaded the whole coast of
 Holland.
 The lecture lasted three hours.
 I saw her several times.
 There was much dry and little wool.
 Punctuality is the soul of all business.]

III. EXERCISES ON THE PRONOUN.

12. Select the pronouns from the following sentences, and say whether they are of first, second, or third person :—

They are good boys. She climbed up the mountain. It was very cold. You see she has her eyes open. I know that thou canst do everything, and that no thought can be withheld from thee. We make pictures out of sunshine. She walks in her sleep. I have forgotten my part. So here she comes. Do thy duty and I will do mine. We have just seen them. When he wishes for amusement he goes to work. As William had gained his crown by force, he was obliged to keep it by severe laws. They walked into the wood. They call him Harry. He is gone into the park. They are playing at marbles. I feel very tired. You see how pale I am. I think we shall soon have snow. They are very hard and stern. It is soft and gentle. Thou art out betimes, thou busy bee. She walks in beauty like the night. We have just seen them. I hope you will come to see us soon. Shall I light the lamp?

13. Select the pronouns as before, and say whether they are personal, possessive, relative, interrogative, or compound.

The English keep their old customs. They love reality. When he wishes for amusement he goes to work. Of whom are you speaking? Who would have thought her so old? He had many strange tales to tell of his travels. I fear you will hurt yourself. The horse quickly finds out who is afraid of it. He pushed the door, which yielded to his hand. My son, if sinners entice thee, consent thou not. Who hath measured the waters in the hollow of his hand? The Englishman believes that every one must take care of himself. He sat himself on the top of the tree. Keep my commandments and live, and my law as the apple of thine eye. Let us go down the path which leads to your house. Which is he? He was sent to the school of which his father was the master. It was a favourite maxim with him, that man is equal to anything. What would you do under such circumstances? He was placed under the care of a surgeon, with whom he remained three years. Which of you two will dine with me to-day? I know that you do not love me. What have you been doing with yourself all day? He has fallen and hurt his arm. She could hardly earn daily bread for herself.

There is a tide in the affairs of men,

Which, taken at the flood, leads on to fortune.

I promise to do what you desire. His chief exercise is hunting, of which he is very fond. My friend will come to us next week. She smiled and bowed her head. What have you been singing? Thou speakest of times which are past. He does not know what you have been doing. Whatsoever thy hand findeth to do, do it with thy might. One feels one's-self very uncomfortable under these circumstances. He is a man who cannot defend himself.

[14. Point out all the adjectives which are here employed as pronouns.]

James the Second is the only king of England, since the Conquest.

that died in exile. One cannot be everywhere. Every species of bird has its own peculiar voice, though some of them easily imitate the song of others. He that trusteth in his own heart is a fool. I communed with mine own heart, and whatsoever mine eyes desired I kept not from them. Either will suit me very well. No one can serve two masters. He has neither these nor those; he has his own, which are very good ones. The eyes of fish differ from our own in their shape and structure. Whatsoever God doeth it shall be for ever. The greatest number of birds live in trees, some few on the water, and some only on the ground; those that live in trees have the toes separate. Some also were there that said so. These are those of whom I spoke to you. I give them as much as I can afford.]

[15. In Exercises 13 and 14, show which is the antecedent to each of the *relative* pronouns there employed.]

16. Write out the following passages, substituting pronouns in place of the repeated nouns :—

Shakspeare was the man who, of all modern, and perhaps ancient poets, had the largest and most comprehensive soul. All the images of nature were still present to Shakspeare; and Shakspeare drew them, not laboriously but luckily. Those who accuse Shakspeare of having wanted learning give Shakspeare the greater commendation. Shakspeare was naturally learned; Shakspeare needed not the spectacles of books to read nature. Shakspeare looked inward and found her there. I cannot say that Shakspeare is everywhere alike; were Shakspeare so, I should do Shakspeare injury to compare Shakspeare with the greatest of mankind. Shakspeare is many times flat and insipid, Shakspeare's comic wit degenerating into clenches, his serious swelling into bombast. But Shakspeare is always great when some great occasion is presented to Shakspeare; no man can say that Shakspeare ever had a fit subject for Shakspeare's wit, and did not then raise Shakspeare high above the rest of poets.

The ostrich is the largest of birds. The ostrich is hunted. Although the ostrich has feathers the ostrich cannot fly, because the ostrich is too heavy, and the little wings of the ostrich could not carry the ostrich. The ostrich, however, runs so much the quicker, and the Arabs are only able to catch the ostrich when the Arabs have tired the ostrich some days by constant chase. In running, the ostrich constantly beats with its wings. Also, it is related of the ostrich, that when the ostrich's pursuer approaches the ostrich, the ostrich sticks the ostrich's head in the sand, in order, as it were, to hide the ostrich. On that account, the ostrich is often represented as a type of stupidity, which betrays itself.

IV. EXERCISES ON THE VERB.

17. Show what the following things do :—

The dog
The pen
The gun

The horse
The pencil
The bird

The clock
The child
The coachman

The knife
The cat
The schoolmaster

The pigs
The needle
The tailor

The sea
The river
The painter

The sword
The smith
The tree

The butterfly
The cobbler
The lion

18. Which of the following verbs express what anything does, and which express what is done to it? Place each kind in separate columns.

Violets bloom early. The sea moaned and swelled. The door was opened. A house was built. The swallow twitters. He caught me by the cloak. I was frightened by a wolf. The farmer jogged along the road. The corn-craik runs very fast. Wild turkeys are sometimes hunted with dogs. The gas burns brightly this evening. The dog attacks the pigs. She knits all my stockings. All my roses were pruned last week. Hares run across our garden every day. The carpets were shaken last week. James II. of Scotland was killed by the bursting of a cannon. The princess worked and read religious books. Charles I. was beheaded.

My stockings there I often knit,
My kerchief there I hem,
And there upon the ground I sit,
I sit and sing to them.

19. Change the active verbs in the following sentences into passive verbs, preserving the sense; thus, John loved Robert. Robert was loved by John.

He struck me. His horse threw him. He called me. I rang the bell. She praised our work. The warm rays of the sun melt the snow. He takes portraits very correctly. She reproved us for being so late. I recognised him in the distance. Britannia rules the waves. I saw him on the battle eve. Sir Christopher Wren built St. Paul's. The red glare on Skiddaw roused the burghers of Carlisle. No one has yet discovered the source of the Nile. Let our voice his praise exalt! He gives us all we need. The first fresh dawn awoke us. Dr. Livingston has explored a large part of Africa.

20. Change the passive verbs in the following sentences into active :—

The apples were roasted by James. She is not envied by us. Some gloes were being sung by us. We were seen by him. They were delayed by the storm. Some seeds were sown by our gardener. William the Second was killed by Walter Tyrrel. We were gladdened by the sight. The man was bitten by a snake. He is admired by them. She was beloved by all who knew her. The ship was tossed about by the waves. He is beloved by all. The English were conquered by the Normans. Powerfully was the ship borne along by the billows. Taxes are imposed by the government. Peace was concluded at Paris by the European powers.

21. Connect the following pairs of nouns by a verb :—

Ploughman
Miller

field.
corn.

Child.	father
Horse	plough.
Smith	iron.
Mouse	cheese.
Joiner	chaff.
Fish	water.
Master	child.
Gardener	flower.
Ho	saddle.

(The pupil may find twelve more examples for himself.)

22. Show which of the following verbs are transitive, and which intransitive :—

She told me to keep blind man's holiday. Wellington governed India, and Spain, and his own troops, and fought many battles.

Then rose from sea to sea the wild farewell,

Then shrieked the timid, and stood still the brave.

The nightingale haunts close shrubberies and copses, and, it has been observed, more especially where the cowalip grows plentifully. He sat under the shadow of the old yew-tree. The cuckoo arrives in our island early in spring. The young birds of the year generally remain until the end of August. He spoke the language of the country in perfection. I heard the owl scream and the cricket cry. Never give up! It is wiser and better always to hope than once to despair. One morning the steward awakened us with the news that icebergs were close at hand.

Before the bright sun rises o'er the hill,

In the corn field poor Mary is seen,

Impatient her little blue apron to fill,

With the few scattered ears she can glean.

To scratch, to bite, to run, to talk, to dream, to sleep, to think, to ring, to sing, to love, to gee, to walk, to go, to play, to dance, to clean, to teach, to lie, to cut, to drench, to fly, to tear, to laugh, to grow, to dress, to cook, to work, to wash, to travel.

23. Show which of the following verbs are in the active, which in the passive, and which in the middle voice :—

I teach her music. She was quite stunned by the fall. The ice was broken this morning by some mischievous boys. The wine tastes sour. We planted some roses in our garden this morning. Give me my robe. Put on my crown. Some houses were overturned and their inmates destroyed. John carried Charles to school yesterday. America was discovered by Columbus. This phrase reads awkwardly. My son has been offered a situation in the custom-house. The city was destroyed by an earthquake. My parents never cost me a blush, and I never cost them a tear. The moon moves round the earth.

He plants his footsteps in the sea,

And rides upon the storm.

His project has answered well. Our new carriage is building. The Swiss are strongly affected by their native music. I know myself now, and I feel within me a peace above all earthly dignities, a still and quiet conscience. The clouds are moving towards the west.

Motionless as a cloud the old man stood,

That moveth altogether if it move at all.

Ash is very tough; it does not cut so easily as pine. The angler caught several carp; the fish took freely. Ten strikes from the old church tower. He bought a printing-press and set to work.

(Exercises 22 and 23 may be continued, by the teacher pointing out a portion of a reading-book, from which the verbs may be selected and classified.)

[24. Find out twelve verbs which cannot take a passive form; as, sit, lie.]

[25. Show which of the following intransitive verbs imply an active state, which a passive state, and which a change of state :—

The people rushed from their shaking and falling houses with pillows on their heads.

After dinner he slept quietly for about a quarter of an hour.

The sun is rising calm and bright.

All bloodless lay the untrodden snow.

Awake, arise, or be for ever fallen !

Leaves have their time to fall,

And flowers to wither at the north wind's breath.

That fine old church is built of red sandstone, which crumbles daily.

The volcano flamed out with violence.

The sea ran excessively high.

The long-wished-for moment at length arrived. Oft in sledges in winter they glided away o'er the meadow. The guests rose and departed, and silence reigned in the household. Noisy groups sat in the cheerful sun, and rejoiced and gossipped together. Words of welcome fell from his lips. The vapours froze in fantastic shapes on the window pane. Laughing and weeping by turns, or sitting silent and thoughtful Will it last through stormy weather?

26. Show which verbs in the following passages are principal, which auxiliary, and which impersonal :—

Coal-fields are the remains of vast forests, which have been buried under the surface of the earth, and in the course of time changed into this mineral. Every species of bird has its own peculiar voice. It has frozen very hard to-night. I do not fear to meet danger. No man can more sincerely detest slavery than I do. I am its mortal foe. It grows dark rapidly. Let the busy and the active pause for a time, and learn the high lesson which nature teaches them. It thunders among the mountains. She was a woman now with the heart and hopes of a woman.

O day so dark and dreary !

It rains, and the wind is never weary.

How do you do ?

[27. Make two sentences on each of the following words, in the first of which it shall be used as a noun; in the second as a verb :—

Fear, fall, excuse, quarrel, report, laugh, cry, cost, work, object, attack, mark, apprentice, question, pride, lie, name, dress, sleep, cook, bare, nurse, charm, press, view, love, praise, hope, dawn, resort, regard.

V. EXERCISES ON THE ADVERB.

28. Point out in the following sentences the adverbs of time, of place, of manner, and of degree:—

Where once we dwelt our name is heard no more. It is a very fine poem. Learn your lesson first, and then go out to play. That picture is exquisitely painted.

The hoarse roar of the billow
Is ever in my ear,
For close, close lies my pillow
To the watery desert drear.

Now 's the day, and now 's the hour.

The lowing herd winds slowly o'er the lea

I have not seen him lately. He is constantly occupied. I have not called upon him yet. The Laplanders are chiefly divided into fishers and mountaineers. He finds almost all his wants supplied by the rein-deer. The dancers quickly took their places. He looked quite surprised. The water is calm and still below. Come away. He went yesterday. He is still young. The people of England meanwhile thought this victory enough to repay them. The babe whom Henry had left behind was only nine months old. She often mounted her father's horses. Here interposing fervently I said. That ridge stretches boldly from the mountain side. The summer wore quickly away. Not a child present had, I am sure, ever seen a corn field; and such delight and twinkling of small pale faces I never beheld before or since. They ran swiftly down the hill. The bells were ringing merrily. The battle was fought early in the morning. Answer every man directly. Alas, sir! are you here? I am extremely sorry for him.

Then outspoke brave Horatius,

The captain of the gate—

To every man upon this earth

Death cometh soon or late.

God speaketh once, yea twice, yet man perceiveth it not.

[29. Point out, in the following sentences, the adverbs of measure, number, order, and mood:—

He will probably go to Rome. No, he is not going. He is scarcely recovered yet. Perhaps I may do so. She is hardly free from affectation. I am far from agreeing with you. Verily, verily, I say unto you. She speaks much of her father. Let him first answer that. Peradventure there shall be twenty found there. How much have you got? Thrice the brinded cat hath mewed. I am truly glad to see you. I'll be revenged most thoroughly for my father. Once more we sit on England's throne. I may possibly go to London to-morrow. The weather at first was pleasant. Two minutes had scarcely elapsed when the accident occurred.]

30. Point out, in the following sentences, the interrogative and the compound adverbs:—

Where hast thou sent the king? Wherefore art thou sad? Whither art thou going? Why did he leave you? Whence comest thou? Flowers are found everywhere. I was walking in front. I have not seen him anywhere. He by no means denied it. How many marbles have you won? What are you doing? I have played there many a time. In the first place, let us play a game of chess. Whence comes this tumult? Why do you speak so loud? Where is now the reward for all his labours? How did you travel?

31. Select all the adverbs from the following sentences, and say what part of speech they each qualify:—

I like him not. You are twice as bold as he. First let me talk with this philosopher. Is your master within? I have already chosen my officer. He stood up and held out his hand. It is almost twelve years since they left England.

And when above the surges
They saw his crest appear,
All Rome sent forth a rapturous cry,
And even the ranks of Tuscany
Could scarce forbear to cheer.

At last with easy roads he came to Leicester. He is yonder, beneath the elm-tree. We saw him yesterday. After speaking thus, he turned and slowly left the spot. Every one ran hither and thither. The battle was fought early in the day. Tin is never found in a native state. He was warmly received. I was not a little surprised to see the wolves. Darkness broke away, and morning began to dawn. His wheelbarrow was often emptied and filled again, and by-and-by it was turned into a cart. He was welcomed everywhere, and almost by everybody. What must my works be? That redbreast is much less than thou. How shall I work, and where? Look wherever thou canst for sloes and elderberries. Only get to work. He was now an orphan. He could not read properly, and still less write. He would have very much liked to go to school. She looked steadily awhile into the boy's face. Already he imagined himself possessed of the things he desired. They went along the street slowly side by side. He set out afresh. Don't tear them asunder. We have climbed the hill together. I won't let him go yet. I see him now and then. He led her at last into the garden. The lad went away directly after dinner. You are very good. He was extremely generous. I have played with him many a time.

[32. Classify the following adverbs under the seven heads of—point of time, duration of time, rest, motion, degree, number, affirmation:—

Quickly, daily, never, always, now, once, to-morrow, afterwards, lately, seldom, sometimes, still, formerly, almost, entirely, once, very, first, truly, exceedingly. Indeed, scarcely, verily, certainly, ever, often, thrice, oftentimes. Here, second, there, hither, forwards, off, once, to and fro enough, nearly, hence.]

[33. Write out the following passages, and change the phrases printed in italics into adverbs :—

All things smiled

With fragrance and with joy. ••

Everything was done *with prudence and wisdom*. The bird builds its nest *with great skill*. The queen was received *with loyalty*, and *with profound silence*. How marvellous are thy works! in *wisdom* hast thou made them all! He performed his part *with great care*. He always acts *with judgment*. The game went on *with spirit*. Many boys perform their exercises *with great carelessness*. The procession moved forward *with solemnity*. He rode *with great courage*. *With silence* she passed through the hall.]

34. Write out the following passages, and put the adverbs into as many different positions in each sentence as you are able :—

We used to see them very frequently. Sometimes he returns home very late. I really am not at all sorry. We may probably go there to-morrow. Confess it to me freely. We always go once a year. We were then in Switzerland. We are only at the foot of the mountain. You will certainly go there. The river rose above the higher water-mark. She went abroad for the recovery of her health. When I called at your house yesterday I left my stick behind me. Now it is all over. They set off early this morning for London. He came to us first. We all dine out to-day. He acted throughout with great discretion. The winter is past,—already the trees and herbs begin to unfold their tender green. He is never in the same mind half-an-hour together. This cheese is quite mouldy. At first they were much astonished; gradually they grew calmer; and at last were reconciled to him. The nuptials were thrice announced from the pulpit. They are happily matched. At last he opened his mouth and said. He resolved immediately to make an apology. I went immediately to his assistance. Never shall I forget the scene.

VI. EXERCISES ON THE PREPOSITION.

35. Point out the prepositions in the following sentences, and the words which they govern :—

The smiling daisies blow beneath the sun.

We crossed the river by a bridge made of ropes. They sat them down upon the yellow sand. We visited the ruins of the great Thebes. How fresh the meadows look above the river. The mocking-bird loses little of his energy by confinement. The deer across their greensward bound. I saw a wearied man dismount from his hot steed. She waited underneath the dawning hills. The noise of battle rolled among the mountains by the winter sea. The light white cloud swam over us. Her tears fell with the dews at even.

In pride, in reasoning pride, our error lies.

All the region towards Cairo resembled a sea covered with islands. In the retreat from Moscow, Bonaparte provided only for his own security. We

were roused with the intelligence that the pyramids were in view. Below me trees unnumbered rise. Beautiful in various dyes. Over his own sweet voice the stock-dove broods. Heaven from all creatures hides the book of fate. I stood on the bridge at midnight.

36. Point out the prepositions, showing which relate the words they govern, 1st, to a noun; 2dly, to a verb; and 3dly to an adjective:—

The mists sweep over the fields. The stars are shining brightly above us. The old clock on the stairs strikes twelve. The rivers run through woods and meads. The sentinel stands near the sentry-box. He threw a stone into the water. He is not guilty of that crime. The beautiful tree which stood before our house has been cut down. He is the worthy son of a good father. His portrait hangs on the wall in his study. I heard the rush of many waters. It is said that the same nest serves the eagle during life. Industry is the road to wealth. Let not strife be between me and thee. She is gone before us. Study is indispensable to mental progress. He has the manners of a gentleman. The city of Amsterdam stands upon wooden piles. The air is full of insects. Europe is surrounded on three sides by the ocean. Thus day after day passed. I am very uneasy about my brother. His character is beyond all praise. The Queen has returned from Scotland. Hang your hat on the peg.

37. Show which prepositions, as employed in the following sentences, denote, 1. place; 2. time; 3. motion; 4. means; 5. cause and purpose:—

I went to Paris last year. Step across the street. The sugar is in the cupboard. The lamp is on the sideboard. Come into the garden. Hercules and Pompeii were overwhelmed by an eruption of Vesuvius. John Locke was born at Wrington in Somersetshire. He was bitten by a dog. They came from London on Friday. He was released by some noblemen. He appeared unto me in a dream. Eton College was founded by Henry VI. They passed over the bridge at midnight. Many children were placed there by their parents for education. He worked from morning until night. A fog lies over the valley. Character is deteriorated by intemperance. He sold his birthright unto Jacob. Pines and firs are used for the masts of ships. The stream runs through the village. The earth is surrounded on all sides by air. He is going into the field to make hay.

[38. Point out all the prepositions, or compound prepositional phrases in the following sentences, and state what kind of relation they express:—

He died fighting for his country. She is in Italy on account of her health. It rained during the entire journey. He has an account against me. He promised it for the sake of peace. Birds of passage were sailing through the leaden air. A city divided against itself cannot stand. Without me ye can do nothing. They are travelling to Rome. This occurred within an hour after you left us. A large box stood beside him filled with parchments. He is now in London. The whale is the connecting link between sea and land animals. They all rushed into open

spaces for safety. The people are coming from church. The army marched against the king. He went instead of his cousin. This house is built of brick. He swam manfully against the stream. He did it out of spite.]

[39. Point out which of the prepositions in the following sentences have an independent meaning, and which are only used to modify the meaning of the verb or adjective with which they are used.]

Men are liable to many evils. I have lent it him till next week. I will submit to arbitration. He has a heart of iron. I am going towards your house. He adheres to his old habits. You have thrown your ball over the wall. I cannot comply with your request. A rumbling sound was heard beneath their feet. He is independent of authority. It hangs above you. How have you disposed of your goods? The plays of Shakspeare are universally admired. I am tired of contending with difficulties. The military force was immense during the war. He has acceded to my proposal. He is accustomed to hardships. It is past twelve o'clock. He is indifferent to censure. He has gained the office by virtue of his high character. I can dispense with her services. He did it for me. Love laughs at locksmiths. She is now free from care.]

(Any of the exercises on adverbs or prepositions may be extended, by requiring the pupils to select them from the reading lessons, and classify them as above.)

VII. EXERCISES ON THE CONJUNCTION.

40. Point out the conjunctions in the following sentences:—

Lucy and Harry are gone to London.

Wisdom is better than gold.

William or Charles will accompany us.

Not the children but the father was in fault.

Neither you nor I can go.

He cannot read or write much; but he can find his way without being led.

We are happy, and the more so, because those we love are happy also.

Young birds cannot fly as soon as they are hatched, because they have no wing feathers.

The child was weak, but courageous. But both in body and mind he was older than other men of the same age. Though it was now day they had no light but what proceeded from the crater. Nevertheless, the centurion believed the master and owner of the ship.

Neither military nor civil pomp was wanting. If we succeed what will the world say. Before I begin I will explain that to you. I will not go either. Nevertheless I tell you the truth. After that time we heard nothing more of him. I read the newspaper, because it interests me to know what is passing. However, I soon arrived at my friend's house. I thought myself at home, and therefore parted with all my store. Accordingly, the next morning I departed. Either you or I must go. Consequently ill befell him. He lived

but eight miles from Cork. However, upon the way I met a poor woman all in tears. Accordingly on the day named, the Indians were seen moving through the weeds. Except these abide in the ship, ye cannot be saved. Then went this saying abroad among the brethren, that that disciple should not die: yet Jesus said, not unto him, He shall not die; but, If I will that he tarry till I come, what is that to thee?

[41. Point out which of the words in each sentence are prepositions, which conjunctions, and which adverbs:—

Now's the day, and now's the hour. When the swallow returns spring begins. The wind whistles without. The people will judge otherwise. And he commanded the chariot to stand still. She speaks as she feels. Now there was at Joppa a certain disciple called Tabitha. As I was going to the station I met my brother. All this is very strange, but however strange it may be, it is not new. The museum is rich in antiquities, and contains many interesting relics. He rose quickly and went into the garden. But the great object of attraction is the cathedral. He walked out without a hat. In our way from London to Edinburgh we passed the night at Carlisle. The house is already old, yet it has been sold at a high price. Be kind to him, otherwise he will not be happy. Except ye repent ye shall all likewise perish. He went away laughing. Therefore came I unto you. But Philip was found at Azotus. The Russians fought against the French in 1857. This stick belongs to me. All departed save one. Tremble not, but venture. The prospect from the hill is yet more beautiful. I arrived in London about the middle of the day. I cannot do it otherwise. I cannot do so. Of all the fairest cities of the earth, none is so fair as Florence. Is your master contented with him? He is contented with him because he is industrious. And when the day was far spent we went into Jerusalem. Without me ye can do nothing. None but the brave deserve the fair. So he went into Egypt. In the centre of this apartment stands the statue which enchants the world. He is neither here nor there. That country has, in the first place, a good climate, then it has a fertile soil, further, the laws are just, lastly, the institutions are excellent.]

42. Show which of the following conjunctions are simply connective, and which continuative (or governing):—

He trusts me, because he knows that I am honest.

Four and four make eight.

Alfred rebuilt and beautified the city of London.

Zeal, when tempered by discretion, is irresistible.

But the Scottish nation, though conquered, was not subdued.

Nevertheless, he regarded their affliction when he heard their cry.

When I am in a town I can hear the clock; and when I am in the country

I can listen to the silence.

Love not sleep, lest thou come to poverty

Think, before you speak.

He maketh the storm a calm, so that the waves thereof are still.

I will hear thee, said he, when thy accusers are also come.

Oh that I had wings like a dove! Then would I fly away, and be at rest.

And yet, notwithstanding this, and so many other passages, that seem like the marrow of our being, some deny that he was a poet.

He shall not eat of the holy thing, unless he wash his flesh with water.

He was rational, because he was temperate.

We ought to read blank verse, so as to make every line sensible to the ear.

The difference is such that all will perceive it.

Go thou and do likewise.

Whether he was guilty or not is still a matter of doubt.

As two are to four, so are six to twelve.

We should consider, if tempted to hurt or kill any little insects, how we should like any greater being than ourselves to do the same to us.

Mary was impatient of contradiction, because she had been always treated as a queen.

Education means the development of the bodily and mental powers.

[43. Show which of the following conjunctions are distributive, and which adversative :—

A soft answer turneth away wrath, but grievous words stir up anger.

Troy will be taken, although Hector defend it.

And before I was recalled home, French was more familiar to my ear than English.

Blessed are the merciful, for they shall obtain mercy.

I shall neither attempt to palliate, nor soften your conduct.

We were happy there, but we returned home gladly.

He will be here, either to-day or to-morrow.

Wisdom is more precious than gold.

It has been neither too hot nor too cold to-day.

Time flies fast, yet it sometimes appears to move slowly.

Cæsar was a great, but not a good man.

I fear neither fire nor sword.

You are not wood, you are not stones, but men.

For I have neither wit, nor words, nor worth.

Precept is not so forcible as example.

Religion dwells not on the tongue, but in the heart.

Either he or I is in the wrong.

However, this humour creates him no enemies, for he does nothing with sourness or obstinacy.

He is never overbearing, but always conciliatory.]

44. Classify the conjunctions in the following sentences into the two great classes of *copulative* and *disjunctive* :—

The day is fine and the sun shines.

I will get up early, if you will call me.

The night is dark, because there is no moon.

Surely nothing is more simple than time.

Desire to please, and you will infallibly please.

Let there be no strife, I pray thee, between me and thee.

The case is so clear, that it needs no explanation.

He had no sooner transgressed, than he repented.

I forgive him, although he has sinned against me.
If thou consider rightly of the matter, Caesar had great wrong.

If thou rememberest aught ere thou cam'st here,

How thou cam'st here thou may'st.

Hear instruction and be wise.

Though God is high, yet hath he respect unto the lowly.

The wicked flee, when no man pursueth.

He spoke, but a universal silence ensued.

Socrates was more patient than most men.

Nevertheless he did many good things for the people.

I am no orator, as Brutus is.

Moreover, he hath left you his private arbours, and new planted orchards.

As evening is to the day, so is age to human life.

Whatever really exists, whether necessarily or relatively, may be called a fact.

Although he was inclined to represent his health as better than it really was, his dislike to motion appeared to increase.

Neither inflammation nor fever ensued.

I shall go to London on Thursday or Friday.

• PART II.

EXERCISES ON THE INFLEXIONS OF WORDS.

INFLEXIONS OF NOUNS.

45. Write out the plurals of the following words :—

Sister, ox, tooth, foot, goose, die, child, man, penny, hero, lady, knife, calf, scarf, staff, box, proof, phenomenon, datum, loaf, genus, analysis, appendix, bandit, cherub, seraph, judge, vertex, cargo, beau, focus, beauty, key, animalculum, mouse, wife, grotto, country, leaf, house, brother, woman, pea, self, kiss, bench, sow, fox, horse, life, chief, wharf, eye, gipsy, fairy, donkey, medium, sheep, contest.

46. Write out the following sentences, making each affirmation plural instead of singular :—

The monkey is the animal which most resembles man. A mouse is running across the room. A sheep has a woolly fleece. The appendix to this book is short. The hypothesis will not hold good. The tree has lost its

leaves. The datum proved to be false. The premiss was true. The radius of a circle is half its diameter. A nebula appeared in the heavens. A gipsy offered to tell me my fortune. The mountain is enveloped in mist. The house of which you speak is a ruin. There is a beautiful rose in our garden. There is a very useful appendix to that book. The fox is a cunning animal. A little child should not be trusted with a knife. A nerve is a little white string, and is a medium of communication between the brain and other parts of the body. A mountain is a grand sight.

47. Write down the possessive case singular, and, when they admit of it, the possessive case plural, of the following words:—

Mother, eagle, man, girl, boy, poet, John, righteousness, woman, Xerxes, drum, sheep, sister, cat, Moses, sun, sea, cavern, shell, Aristides, rose, people, Mr. Roberts, bees, caterpillars, rivers, tree, children.

48. Put the following phrases into the possessive form:—

The mossy seat beneath the shade of the hawthorn. The five books of Moses. The horse of the gentleman. The tusks of the bears. The servants of the queen. The shadows of the mountains. The rays of the sun. The foliage of the trees. The fleetness of the horse. The sails of the ships. The nests of the birds. The life of man. The contents of the basket. The faith of Moses. The fine dress of the lady. The height of Snowdon is above 3700 feet. The paintings of Raphael are very fine. The patience of Socrates was great. The brightness of the sun. The virtue of the man. The flowers of autumn. The snows of winter. The tears of a nation. The pleasures of spring. The smile of childhood. The songs of the birds. The language of flowers. The genius of Milton. The strength of Hercules. The ardour of Peter. The caves of the ocean. The violet was the favourite flower of Shakespeare.

49. Say, respecting the following words, whether they are masculine, feminine, neuter, or common as to gender:—

Henry, girl, cloud, insect, London, people, child, lark, friend, sea, moon, ship, man, robin, virtue, Paris, sugar, Countess, coal, blackness, hero, nun, cherub, queen, Charles, bride, huntress, sow, uncle, poet, table, father, hen, king, sofa, lass, ram, goat, pigeon, youth, witch, mountain, giantess, servant, cow, niece, church, female, actress, traitors, shell, governor, princess, lad, bull, sovereign, monk, tutor, abbess, nephew, waterfall, aunt, ice, cousin.

INFLEXIONS OF ADJECTIVES.

50. Give the comparative and superlative forms of the following adjectives:—

Great, good, wise, ill, little, short, bad, late, near, fore, much, old, frugal, few, valuable, many, patient, amiable, high, long, pretty, black, rich, heavy, hot, dangerous, fair, far, gentle, bright, bitter, green, calm, gay, hard, useful, red, light, truthful, swift, large, soft, gentle, tall, modest, merry, rough, dark.

INFLEXIONS OF PRONOUNS.

51. Select the pronouns from the following sentences, and give the gender, number, and case of each :—

They amused themselves by listening to the music. She took care of us till we were able to work for ourselves. He gave himself up to melancholy reflections. Have you forgotten the young man who used to bring you birds' eggs? Those pigeons are ours. Her food is much better than ours. You do not believe me. What is the use of the light to him who keeps his eyes fast shut? You must prepare yourself for your journey. He had no money of his own. The book is theirs; I cannot tell what has become of it. I am an Englishman. They are walking in the park. She speaks German well. We have been gathering wild-flowers; the hedges are full of them.

INFLEXIONS OF THE VERB.

52. Write out the conjugation of the following verbs without auxiliaries :—

Speak, move, think, laugh, stand, cry.

53. Write out all the inflexions which are in use of the following verbs :—

To be, may, can, must, have, shall, will, do.

54. Make a complete scheme of all the moods and tenses of the following verbs with auxiliaries :—

To grieve, to forget.

55. Give the past tense and past participle of the following verbs :—

Fall, lose, shoe, sing, seek, work, shine, teach, write, knit, tell, ride, know, sleep, lead, put, grow, sell, cut, steal, catch, slit, mean, praise, let, wear, till, hurt, bless, come, jump, go, take, play, run, forsake, tear, sit, fly, cost, hear, creep.

56. Write out the complete scheme of the *passive voice* of the two following verbs :—

To strike, to hate.

57. Put the following sentences first into past, and secondly into future time :—

The sun is gradually sinking below the horizon. They are wandering amongst the mountains. The girl is milking the cows. The corn is ready to be cut. The flowers are blooming everywhere. I hear the cuckoo. We are now reading Gibbon's History of Rome. The morn is rising over the hills. That ship is sailing very fast. The cows are peacefully chewing the

oud. It is a lovely day. The whole country is alive with waterfalls. I bathe every day. The birds are busy building their nests. We hear the rustling of the wind amongst the trees. She sings, but not well. The bell calls us home. The garden is full of laurels and evergreens. We find many ferns in this little wood. The clock strikes one. The children are gathering blackberries. I am come to say goodbyes. We find it cold although the sun shines. We walk on the beach nearly every day. She teaches them German and French. It thunders amongst the mountains.

58. In the following sentences, turn all the indicative into potential moods :—

Education forms the mind. God sees all things. No one attains greatness without labour. Rocks are formed by the coral insect. Such conduct is not to be endured. Our hopes are deceived. It is a very stormy-day. There are many varieties amongst them. We are going in that ship, to France. Guilt seldom escapes punishment. Contentment produces happiness. The offence was punished by a fine. Horses are used in war. Improvidence is often followed by want. I shall go to-morrow. They have been deceived. The king promoted him. The sun shines brightly. Pure water flows from this fountain. She sings very sweetly. There is service at the cathedral in the afternoon. We received a letter this morning. The boat crosses in all kinds of weather.

59. Select the verbs from the following sentences, and give the mood, tense, number, and person of each :—

Light comes from the sun. The hand obeys the mind. All kinds of corn are sown once a year, they come up in the spring, and ripen in the autumn. Sound goes through the ear as sight goes through the eye. Silk is spun by a worm. If the mighty works had been done in Tyre or Sidon. God draws the curtains of darkness around us: he makes all things to be hushed and still, that his large family may sleep in peace. Pharaoh said, I will let you go. Cotton is brought into this country just as it comes out of the pod. Our world turns round once every day. The parliament was then dissolved. The earth brings forth food, but man must plough and sow, or he will not reap. Learn one lesson at a time. Let me not wander from thy commandments. We ought to look the subject fully in the face. He sleeps in silent solitude.

[N.B.—The teacher can now give any miscellaneous sentences from the reading books to be parsed according to the SECOND method.—Vide "Essentials of English Grammar," p. 38.]

PART III.

EXERCISES ON THE ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.

I. ON THE PRIMARY ELEMENTS OF THE SENTENCE.

60. Express a complete thought respecting the following things :—

The horse, the sheep, the book, virtue, wisdom, the sun, walking, Paris, honour, the blackbird, flowers, music, ball, voice, the wind, Snowdon, courage, the boat, truth, the clouds, Wales, character, the cattle, the night, the mind, the winter, the heat, the snow, nature.

61. Put a subject to the following predicates :—

Swim, fly, runs, play, cry, grow, look, sleeps, strike, lived, sings, jump, teaches, obeys, dream, hit, ran, gathered, smiles, built, walks, chirps, smells, felt, learns, laugh, go, went, talks, came, rode, eat, buys, nurse, works, think, act, scream, scolded, sold.

62. To the following words write predicates, which have the affirmative word (copula) expressed in a distinct form :—

Charity, beauty, the lion, the tide, the odour, the cow, the shade, amiability, the rose, pride, the child, autumn, the robin, reading, the ocean, love, a garden, thought, buttercups, sleep, spring, marbles, pictures, solitude, fields, the boys, writing, birds, eggs, the country, the throne, the noise, the army, peace.

63. Put an attribute to every subject, and a modifying word to every predicate contained in the following sentences :—

The eagle soars. The cuckoo is calling. Weeks had passed. Children are troublesome. The sun is shining. The hunter shoots. The cataract roars. The mountains overshadow the lake. Birds come to our window. A coach runs to Chester. The town is surrounded by interesting scenery. The torrent rushes down through a cleft in the rock. The clouds sailed off Snowdon. The bees are building their cells. The soldiers defended the castle. The villagers are singing their evening song. That bird builds her nest of wool. The butterfly flutters on his wing. The daisy decks the fields. The man labours. The dog guards the gate.

64. Analyze the following sentences, showing the subject, predicate, attribute, and modifying word or phrase in each :—

The little cricket chirps merrily. The yellow cowslip blooms gaily. The whole country arose immediately. The steady coachman drove carefully. The bitter blast whistled shrilly. The narrow pass was terrific. Curious flowers are found there. The fierce battle raged frightfully. Many rivers overflow their banks periodically. Ill weeds grow apace. The merry lark is soaring high. Two boys were going from school. A little boy was digging industriously. A meek dove flew out. Pure water is healthy. The moping owl complains dolefully. A dark cloud overshadows the calm lake. Thick mists envelop the grand mountains. The grey mists fall in showers. The murmuring surge chafes the idle pebbles. The old clock suddenly stopped. The glorious sun is not yet risen. White houses peep through the trees. The broad stream came pouring on. This little village stands very pleasantly.

[N.B.—The following chapter might be omitted, if thought proper, the first time of going through the Exercises.]

II. EXPANSION OF THE PRIMARY ELEMENTS OF THE SENTENCE.

65. In the following sentences expand the noun into noun

Walking is healthy. Mercy is a double blessing. Drunkenness is degrading. Travelling is instructive. Modesty is charming. Reading is useful. Forgiveness is divine. Delays are always dangerous. Sleep is refreshing. Friendship is one of the blessings of life. Sea-bathing is salubrious. Hospitality is a virtue often exercised in savage countries.

66. In the following sentences expand the adjectives into adjective phrases:—

Virtuous men are honoured. A wealthy man can do much good. A learned man is valued. Honest persons are trusted. The walls are very lofty. Four-legged animals are called quadrupeds. Gnats are winged insects. Hard-hearted persons are generally disliked. The world is very large. Tall men were greatly admired by Frederick the Great. Shrewd persons are to be found in all nations. Great generals were common in the time of Napoleon. Keen disputants existed in the middle ages. Brave soldiers fell at Waterloo.

67. In the following sentences expand the adverbs into adverbial phrases:—

Discoveries are often made accidentally. He came upon me unawares. He acted confidently. He is eating now. Bring that child here. He did it reluctantly. She tripped along lightly. He opposed us violently. Perhaps it may occur to you. Leonidas fell gloriously at Thermopylae. Xerxes returned hastily into Asia. Cromwell acted sternly and decidedly when it was necessary to do so. Some persons think he acted hypocritically. Bees build their hives very ingeniously. The bird was instantly secured.

68. In the following examples expand the nouns and noun phrases into sentences :—

To obey the laws is wise. It is disagreeable to be overreached. Being indifferent to good is fatal to our happiness. To be just is more important than to be generous. Children do not generally approve of being washed. To be or not to be, that is the question. Humility is the duty of man. Contentedness is a Christian virtue. Sorrow sometimes worketh patience.

69. In the following examples expand the adjectives and adjective phrases into sentences :—

Philosophers of true wisdom are very rare. Very learned men are rare also. True friendship is eternal. A wounded conscience who can bear? A courageous man is not daunted by difficulties. A king of strong and earnest character is a blessing to his people. A cheerful disposition carries us over many difficulties. A friendly teacher gains the confidence of his scholars. We expect much from a person of great pretensions : but overrated abilities seldom fail of producing disappointment in the end.

70. In the following examples, expand the adverbs and adverbial phrases into sentences :—

He acted confidently. We all answered discreetly. They received us with true kindness. He bore his misfortunes with patience. Do not speak foolishly. Why do you speak contemptuously? Cræsus bore his troubles royally. Leonidas acted heroically.

III. OF THE SUBJECT.

71. In the following examples point out the subject, and state of what kind of word or phrase it consists :—

Deer are not wild in this country. Ye are wondrous strong. Up he rode. Great are thy works, Jehovah! Order is heaven's first law. Who can impair thee? Thus was the Sabbath kept. Clouds are only vapours. Happy are ye. Rocks hide us. So sang they. Few were distinguished by cuirasses, scarce any by helmets. Africa is a large peninsula. Do not give too much for the whistle. Many are called, but few chosen. Give me leave to speak to him. To muse o'er flood and fell is not solitude. This is Moscow. Farewell! Blessed are ye. To create is greater, than created to destroy. To solicit by labour what might be ravished by arms, was esteemed unworthy of the German spirit. Smack went the whip, round went the wheels. Were never folks so glad. To chastise the insolent, or to plunder the defenceless, was alike a cause of war. Like leviathans afloat, lay their bulwarks on the brine. On came the whirlwind.

72. In the following sentences underline the enlargement of every subject :—

Several happy years had passed away. Henry the Eighth reigned thirty-eight years. The modern city of Jerusalem is about a mile in length. The

conquest of Wales took place in the reign of Edward I. Alas! exclaimed a silver-headed sage. From peak to peak leaps the live thunder. The most opulent kings of the earth courted the protection of the Roman Commonwealth. Alfred the Great made many wise laws. The solitary place was glad. The quality of mercy is not strained. Men's evil manners live in brass, their virtues we write in water. Whang the miller was very avaricious. The lenity of the emperor confirmed the insolence of the troops. Now the bright morning star, day's harbinger, comes dancing from the east. Within a windowed niche of that high hall sate Brunswick's fated chieftain. Abraham being now advanced in years, wished to see his son Isaac settled in marriage. Isaac having gone forth to walk at even-tide, met them on their way. The masters of the most wealthy climates of the globe turned away with contempt. The poor father trembling with anxiety began to ford the stream.

73. Explain, in the following examples, precisely of what the enlargement to the subject consists:—

Edward, Duke of Kent, the fourth son of George III., and father of Queen Victoria, died of a neglected cold. Chaucor, the father of English poetry, passed a great part of his life at the Court of Edward III.

His withered cheek and tresses grey,
Seemed to have known a better day.

Such haughty contempt for the opinion of mankind, must remind us of the very different behaviour of one of the greatest monarchs of the present age. Seventy chosen archers of the royal guard ascended in silence. The barbarians of Germany abhorred the confinement of walls. Rejecting with disdain the delicacies provided for his table, he satisfied his appetite with the coarse and common fare which was allotted to the meanest soldiers. The deposed king was treated with gentleness.

Around the fire one wintry night,
The farmer's rosy children sat.

Palestine, the land of Israel, is a small canton of Syria. The keys of the city were then delivered to Sir Walter. The dark-browed warriors came around him. Impatient of fatigue or delay, these half-armed warriors rushed to battle.

The stately homes of England,
How beautiful they stand.

True happiness has no localities. They stood prepared to die, a people doomed. Alexander having recovered from his grief, again took the field. He comes, the herald of a noisy world. The drums' deep roll was heard afar.

[74. Construct sentences to exemplify each kind of subject.]

[75. Construct sentences to exemplify each mode of enlarging the subject.]

IV. OF THE PREDICATE.

76. In the following sentences point out the predicates :—

Hark, the lark at heaven's gate sings. The curfew tolls the knell of parting day. The busy bee makes honey all the day. The boding owl screams from the ruined tower. The fire went roasting up the chimney. Flowers are blooming everywhere. Mount Blanc is a high mountain. The cataract deafened the ear with its roar. The wind whistled down the dark aisle. The Welsh found a leader. The evening breezes gently sighed. I am monarch of all I survey. Was a camel lost in the desert yesterday? Having eaten, he slept. The scythed chariots rolled swiftly. The rain was falling in torrents. Night came slowly on. Henry the Seventh was very avaricious. William II. was shot unintentionally. The crew were drunken and riotous. I was at Bangor yesterday.

77. State of what each predicate, in the following examples, consists :—

The streets are narrow. The clouds are dark. The stage-coach is coming. William was declared king. Take care of yourself. All is peaceful. Louisa is an orphan. Be good. How grand the mountains are. I love reading. The moon shines brightly. The castle was destroyed. He was content. The child became troublesome. She is of a happy disposition. William upon hearing this departed. Paris is a beautiful city. These ferns are very elegant. Tea grows in China. She is handsome. The bells are ringing merrily. The king died soon after. The following true account of a faithful servant is very interesting. Dear is my little native vale. Hurrah! the foes are moving. The night is come. They are of an ancient family. Snowdon is a very high mountain. They are wandering in the fields. These violets smell very sweetly. The air is chill. The rain falls fast. Their graves are green. The minstrel was infirm and old. The dews of summer night did fall. November's sky is chill. They grew in beauty side by side. The stars are very bright to-night.

COMPLETION OF PREDICATE.

78. In the following examples point out the words which complete the predicate :—

The peasant boys tended the sheep. Henry the Second conquered Ireland. Hast thou forgotten me? The reindeer inhabits Lapland. Henry the Eighth married Anne Boleyn. William the Conqueror left three sons. He conducted himself ill. The people at this time knew very little. You must wake me early. We made a crown of flowers. My merry comrades call me. None but the brave deserve the fair. The British emperor defended the frontiers. Henry the Seventh succeeded Richard the Third. Charles fought many battles. The barbarians cultivated their lands. Mercy and truth preserve the king. His good wife assisted him. The more daring

Probus pursued his victories. Our guide cleared the road. We all drew in our breath. Nature seemed to adore its maker. Many of the inhabitants work the mines. The reindeer carries the Laplander. The coachman drove the horses. Merry little children play pranks. Some flowers mark the hours. The lightning struck the house. He quickly lost consciousness. Chatterton, the Bristol poet, wrote wonderful verses. I see him yet. Wilkie, the painter, loved to travel. The view fulfilled our expectations. Wave your tops, ye pines. The budding twigs spread out their fan. I felt her presence. My spirit drank repose. The sweet nightingale hawks the shrubberies. The king released him. Conversation enriches the understanding. The memory of thy glory lit the gloom. Elizabeth rejected all consolation. Some memory of home has entered her heart. At last we wounded our game. Slowly and sadly we laid him down.

79. In the following sentences, underline all that belong to the completion of the predicate:—

I met a little cottage-girl. Some natural tears they dropped. Henry took many prisoners. A stranger filled the Stuart's throne. A willing mind makes rapid progress. Heap on more wood. The legions of Gaul defended the frontiers of the empire. God blessed the work of their hands. He thus concealed his great ignorance. The whale tosses his great tail. Willie purchased some fresh shrimps. Dr. Rae, the Arctic traveller, is building in Kingston dockyard an Arctic schooner. He climbed the dark brow of the mighty Helvellyn. We enjoyed some luscious sweet grapes. A few dry sticks afforded us a cheerful blaze. Hastings had ruled an extensive and populous country. The Laplander, wrapped up in his deer-skins, defies the severity of his native climate. Seeing that I was observed, I made a low obeisance. He turned out the contents of his knapsack. The good woman prepared for me a truly pastoral meal. The action of the waves had worn away a great portion of the base. The cold wind strips the yellow leaf. Fair autumn spreads her fields of gold. Constantine repelled a desperate sally of Pompeianus. The arrow struck the bough of the tree. The army seized the person of the king. Have dominion over the fish of the sea. The birds salute the source of light and day. Elizabeth of England espoused the cause of the revolted Netherlands. The English fleet destroyed a great part of the squadron. Night equalizes the condition of the beggar and the monarch.

80. In the following sentences, distinguish between the direct and the indirect object:—

Thy brother conjured me to make my escape. Give me that beautiful flower. The Roman general set fire to his ships. The emperor obliged him to obey. Canute commanded the waves to retire. His master accused him of fraud. We heard the waters rush past us. I saw him fight with the enemy. A son owes honour to his father. He taught his flock the love and fear of God. Having uttered a short prayer, he gave the signal to the executioner. He offered her his arm. William paid Robert ten thousand marks. Edward promised to make William his heir. The doctor prescribed the patient a receipt. He recommended him also great moderation. The master accused his apprentice of theft. They appointed him governor of the castle. I played him a tune on the flute. We showed the stranger all the rooms of our dwelling. Pour me out a glass of wine. The jackal is said to

provide the lion his daily meal. We esteemed him the best of all companions. Regard me ever as your friend. We considered him to be too young for the situation.

[81. State what kind of indirect object is contained in each of the following examples, and of what it consists:—

His parents made him a draper. The currier turns hides to leather. Heat changes water into steam. Give me your opinion on this matter. He adds injury to insult. John made his elder brother very jealous. We esteemed him wiser than the rest. Promise me a portion of your profits. He sang us merry a good song last night. Of what is the old man thinking? I cannot dispense with his services. They accused Caesar of ambition. Water consists of two gases. I was taught grammar by the schoolmaster. We heard the thunder roll, and saw the lightning flash, and the roof blazing. The teacher gives the scholar sound instruction. We burned the paper to ashes. They esteemed Balbus as the best of all their companions. I hold you guiltless in the matter.]

EXTENSION OF PREDICATE.

82. In the following sentences, point out the extensions of the predicate, and state of what they consist:—

Pleasantly rose next morn the sun on the village of Grand-Pré. Shell-fish cast their shell once a year. He bitterly repented. Now they went to work again with fresh courage. Three weeks later the nuptials were announced from the pulpit. English style begins, at the earliest, only about the middle of the fourteenth century. The eagle and the stork on cliffs and cedar-tops their eyries build. The air gets slowly changed in inhabited rooms. In the present day, the binding of a book illustrates the power of machinery. From branch to branch the smaller birds with songs solaced the woods. Thus with the year seasons return. Hew down the bridge, Sir Consul. Now the sun is rising calm and bright. Sleep had scarcely been thought of all night. One morn a Peri at the gate of heaven stood disconsolate. Soon after, we reached a chalet on the top of the mountain. The preparations for the trial proceeded rapidly. On either side the river lie long fields of barley and of rye. Over the joyous feast the sudden darkness descended. The green trees whispered low and mild. I saw her bright reflection in the waters under me. Simply and solemnly now proceeded the Christian service. The bells are ringing merrily. The old man now went up to the altar. Rivers rush into the sea. The Queen arrived at the station at four o'clock in the afternoon. The dawn had already tinged the horizon with a yellow dusky light. The muleteers drew their mules from the stables. The platform of the station, so tranquil till this moment, was now filled with a variety of sounds.

• In the market-place of Bruges, stands the belfry, old and brown—

Thrice consumed, and thrice rebuild'd, still it watches o'er the town.

83. In the following sentences, point out and classify the extensions of time and place :—

At my feet the city slumbered. The squirrel climbs up the tree. Pines are green all the year. The sun conceals himself behind the trees. The sentinel places himself before the gate. She is singing now. From their nests beneath the rafters sang the swallows. The moon and stars shine by night. Vast meadows stretched to the eastward. I went to the Exhibition last Thursday. Many animals sleep during the winter. The camel can thirst ten days. Letitia went to London yesterday morning. The splash of horses was soon heard behind them. The village reposes in the midst of farms. The farmer sat in his easy chair. We shall visit Paris in the month of June. The sun rises in the east. The moon and stars lighten up the heavens during the night. Alfred arose every morning at six o'clock. My uncle has lived in Italy for many years. The fig-tree is principally cultivated in the southern countries of Europe. We visit Wales once a year. High in front advanced the brandish'd sword. Back to the thicket slunk the guilty serpent. Now came still evening on. After a short silence he commenced again.

84. In the following sentences, point out and classify the extension of manner and cause :—

Take her up tenderly. Lift her with care. He applied to his father from necessity. A good child obeys with alacrity. The judge dares not pronounce sentence arbitrarily. The oven glows with heat. Pinewood is very useful on account of its flexibility. We recognise birds by their wings. A tree is known by its fruit. Loud laugh their hearts with joy. They pitched their tents with care. The attendants moved about noiselessly. Do your mission gently. Pilate condemned Christ from fear of men. The beaver constructs his dam with nicety. The bird fashions her nest on unerring principles of architecture. She has done her work very neatly. The child came springing through the garden. Grass is generally cut with a scythe, but wheat with a sickle. He gained his position by industry and perseverance. Napoleon went to Egypt with forty sail of the line. With such talents he may rise to the highest offices in the state. Telemachus encountered many dangers from love to his father. A student studies for his profit, and travels for his pleasure. The mother knit good warm stockings for the children.

Four long years of mingled feeling,
Half in rest and half in strife,
I have seen thy waters stealing
Onward, like the stream of life.

85. Out of the following words form sentences, each with an extension of time; distinguishing between those which denote, 1. point of time; 2. duration; 3. repetition.

Messenger—come. Violet—bloom. Lark—sing. Coach—start. Sea—ebb. Leaves—fall. Post—leave. The moon—shine. The cock—crow. Ship—sail. Our train—arrive. Doors—open. Cuckoo—leave. School—begin. Dormouse—sleep. I—get up. Alfred—walk. Eagle—fly. Summer—last. Winter—begin. Sun—rise. Father—walk.

field. Rose—bloom. Cherry—blossom. Some animals—sleep. Corn—thresh.]

- [86. Out of the following words form sentences, each with an extension of place; distinguishing between, 1. rest in; 2. motion to; 3. motion from.

Town—stand. Coachman—drive. Liverpool—situated. Officer—perished. William—live. Garden—lie. Coffee—export. Children—play. Labourer—come. Wind—change. Our friends—go. Rome—built. Put—book. We—dwell. London—situated. Gate—stand. The boys—fell. Village—lie. Fish—live. I—go. Rivers—run. Bristol—situated. Alps—lie. Swallow—leave. Paris stand.]

- [87. Out of the following words form sentences, each with an extension of manner; distinguishing between those which denote, 1. manner, properly so called; 2. degree; 3. instrument; 4. accompanying circumstances.

Scholar—learn. Dog—run. Soldier—exhaust. Night—come. The sun—light. Lightning—strike. Evening—star—shine. Thunder—roll. The clouds—envelop. The storm—come. The oak—stand. Conversation—interrupt. Family—sit. Stockings—knit. Velvet—make. Richard I.—killed. Bird—catch. King—come. Workman—tired. Parliament—open. Garden—cultivate. Swallow—fly. Master—teach. Corn—grow. Charles—arrive.]

- [88. Out of the following words form sentences, each with an extension of cause; distinguishing between those denoting, 1. reason; 2. condition; 3. purpose; 4. motive; 5. material cause.

Iron—rusty. River—swell. Air—purified. Fire—produced. Wood—swim. Brutus—kill—Cæsar. The virtuous man—act. Sailors—undergo—danger. Tree—known. The child—fall. He—is pale. Mother—watch. Father—labour. Scholar—learn. Churches—built. Schools—founded. We make—butter. Go—to bed. Rise—early. All things—become easy. Balbus—succeed. Eye—made. Tongue—formed.]

89. Analyze the simple sentences given below according to the following models:—

First Model.

Subject.	Predicate.	Object.	Extension.
All the people	brought	him [indirect] their offerings [direct]	willingly into the city.

[N.B.—These sentences may be parsed as well according to the model given in the Grammar.]

Second Model.

All	Enlargement of Subject.
the people	Subject of Sentence.
willingly	Extension of Predicate (<i>manner</i>).
brought	Predicate of Sentence.
him	Indirect object (<i>dative</i>).
their offerings	Direct object.
into the city.	Extension of Predicate (<i>place</i>).

The moon threw its silvery light upon the lake. It whitened the surface of the water. The two men climbed the steep mountain in silence. The King of the Belgians arrived in England yesterday.

The curfew tolls the knell of parting day.

In summer he took his frugal meals in the open air. Dost thou see that redbreast with the straw in his bill? The swallows twitter in their straw-built nests. Custom is the principal magistrate of man's life. Houses are built to live in. God Almighty first planted a garden. The fly sat upon the axle-tree of the chariot-wheel. The lawns and meadow-ledges midway down hang rich in flowers. You had sat that morning, on the casement's edge, a long green box of mignonette. Suspicions amongst thoughts are like bats amongst birds. Expense ought to be limited by a man's wages. The sea-coast of Thrace and Bithynia still exhibits a rich prospect of vineyards, of gardens, and of plentiful harvests. Many a glad good-morrow, and jocund laugh from the young folk, made the bright air brighter. The death of Claudius had revived the fainting spirits of the Goths. Long ere noon all sounds in the village were silenced. The sun from the western horizon, like a magician, extended his golden wand o'er the landscape. The age of the great Constantine and his sons is filled with important events.

But she, with sick and scornful looks averse,

To her full height her stately stature draws.

The ancient Christians were animated by a contempt for their present existence, and by a just confidence of immortality. Overwhelmed by the sight, yet speechless, the priest and the maiden gazed on the scene of terror.

I turning saw, throned on a flowery rise,

One sitting on a crimson scarl' unroll'd,

A queen, with swarthy cheeks and bold black eyes,

Brow bound with burning gold.

In that hour of deep contrition,

He beheld with clearer vision,

Through all outward show and fashion,

Justice, the Avenger, rise.

✓ 90. Form ten sentences—

a With enlarged subjects.

b With enlarged objects.

c With extensions of time and place properly classified.

91. Form five sentences to exemplify each of the particular given under extensions of manner and cause.

V. OF THE COMPLEX SENTENCE.

92. In each of the following examples underline the subordinate sentences :—

Aurelian was invested with the consulship by Valerian, who styled him the deliverer of Illyricum. Rain fertilizes those fields which spread their bounty to God's creatures. Many books cost more than they are worth. Work as long as you can. When the wise men came out of the east to Jerusalem, they asked for the new-born king of Judea. A sincere, upright man speaks as he thinks. Many learned men write so badly that they cannot be understood. It was so cold in the year 1830, that Lake Constance was frozen. A short-hand writer must write as quickly as an orator speaks. Civilisation, which brings man out of a savage state, consists in multiplying the number of occupations. Generally speaking, the more one has, the more one wishes. Lazy people always do as little as they can. When the little chickens come out of the egg, they are able to run. When Herod heard of the new king of Judea, he was frightened. A dervise was journeying alone in a desert, when two merchants suddenly met him. Many of the talents we now possess, and of which we are too apt to be proud, will cease entirely with the present state. She had superadded to her jacket, a ribbon which fell across her shoulder to her waist. They were the sweetest notes I ever heard, and I instantly let down the glass to hear them more distinctly. On a spring evening, on whichever side I turn my eyes, myriads of happy beings crowd upon my view.

Tell me not in mournful numbers,
 "Life is but an empty dream!"
 For the soul is dead that slumbers,
 And things are not what they seem.

93. Point out the noun sentences below, and show what place they each hold in reference to the principal sentence :—

It may easily be shown that the earth is round. Whether the truth will ever come to light is uncertain. How he made his escape is a profound mystery. He never told me that he was going away. His excuse was, that he was engaged all the evening. My determination is, that you shall depart after Christmas. Socrates proved that virtue is its own reward. All affirmed that the king was never seen to smile again. When letters first came into use is uncertain. It is probable that they were first brought from the East.

You forget she is a gipsy girl.

And does that prove that Preciosa is above suspicion?

She sends your jewels back, and bids me tell you, she is not to be purchased by your gold.

Thou knowest that the Pope has sent him into Spain, to put a stop to dances on the stage.

And so I fear these dances will be stopped, and Preciosa be once more a beggar.

Don't thou remember when first we met?

- ✓ 94. Expand the phrases printed below in italics into noun sentences :—

The utility of steam is now everywhere acknowledged. *Your forgetfulness of the promise* is very blameable. *The cause of the delay* is wholly unknown. It is wicked *to steal*. It is wise *to be cautious*. *The immortality of the soul* is generally admitted. I greatly desire *your success*. *The suffering of humanity* is a mysterious fact in the dispensations of Providence.

[95. Write five complex sentences having a noun sentence for its subject; five having the same for its object; five having the same for a predicate, with the verb "to be;" and five having the same in apposition to a noun or pronoun.]

96. Point out the adjective sentences below, and show what noun they each qualify.

The amusement of letters, which affords so many resources in solitude, was incapable of fixing the attention of Diocletian. Towards the west lies the fertile shore that stretches along the Adriatic. The choice of a spot, which united all that could contribute either to health or to luxury, did not require the partiality of a native. There is sweet music here, that softer falls than petals from blown roses on the grass. I keep smooth plats of fruitful ground, where thou mayest warble, eat, and dwell. It was a high speech of Seneca, "That the good things which belong to prosperity are to be wished, but the good things that belong to adversity to be admired." Let the day perish wherein I was born. How much less ni them that dwell in houses of clay, whose foundation is in the dust. There are many injuries which almost every man feels, though he does not complain. The place whereon thou standest is holy ground.

On the square the oriel window, where in old heroic days
Sat the poet Melchior, singing Kaiser Maximilian's praise.

See here is a bower

Of eglantine, with honeysuckles woven,
Where not a spark of prying light creeps in.

She loved me for the dangers I had passed;
And I loved her that she did pity them.

This only is the witchcraft I have used.

Pleased with my admiration, and the fire
His speech struck from me, the old man would shake,
His years away.

[97. Write ten complex sentences, with an adjective sentence qualifying the subject; and ten more with an adjective sentence qualifying the object.]

98. Point out the adverbial sentences in the following examples :—

Where'er we tread 'tis haunted ground. Cromwell followed little events before he ventured to govern great ones. Thou shalt honour thy father and mother, that thy days may be long. When Jesus was twelve years of age, he went into the temple with his brethren. The older you become, the wiser

you should be. The gardener is planting the shrubs where they will have the most shade. Can the soldier, when he girdeth on his armour, boast like him who putteth it off? While the earth remaineth, seed-time and harvest shall not fail. Where the carcass is, there will the eagles be gathered together. Where thou hast, not sowed thou canst not reap. If you wish to be well, you must live moderately. God has made everything good, but man is not always satisfied. Live so that thou mayest never have reason to repent. Paul, before he was converted, was a great persecutor of Christ. The body of St. Andrew was magnificently interred by Constantine, when he became a Christian. When darkness broke away, and morning began to dawn, the town wore a strange aspect indeed. Fools rush in where angels fear to tread. Before the mountain were brought forth, or ever thou hadst formed the earth and the world, even from everlasting to everlasting thou art God.

- When Tancred's buried, and not till then,
The heir shall have his own again.

99. Specify which of the following relations of time and place are implied in the adverbial sentences below—point of time, duration, repetition; rest in, motion to, motion from.

When Columbus had finished speaking, the sovereigns sank upon their knees. My father gets up when the sun rises. Magdalene did not know the Saviour until she had talked with him. While he was talking thus, the place, the old man's shape, both troubled me. When you are tempted to resent an injury, reflect with yourselves, Has God no account against you? After the most violent shock had ceased, the clouds of dust began to disperse. When the spray had fallen again, the glittering domes had vanished. While I call for justice upon the prisoner, I wish also to do him justice. When you would speak or think harshly of your neighbour, reflect, Are you so without sin, that you can venture to cast the first stone at another? He, like the world, his ready visit pays where fortune smiles. When William Penn approached the Sachems, all the Indians threw down their arms. And when even was come, the ship was in the midst of the sea. After he had suppressed this conspiracy, he led his troops into Italy. I shall stay here until the post arrives. When he took his seat, the house cheered him. He swam the Esk river, where ford there was none. When Hannibal marched into Italy he was obliged to open a way over the mountains. As often as you repeat this offence, you will be severely punished. When'er I take my walks abroad, how many poor I see. He intends visiting his relations before he leaves England. Travel not early, before thy judgment be risen; lest thou observe rather shows than substance. Whenever we visited him, he welcomed us most warmly. While Constantine signalized his valour in the field, the sovereign of Rome appeared insensible to the dangers of civil war. Before Constantine marched into Italy, he secured the friendship of the Illyrian emperor. As we were crossing the straits, a severe storm arose. Whilst he passed this indolent life he was repeatedly heard to declare, that he alone was emperor. Where thou goest I will go. I will go wherever you wish.

100. Specify which of the following relations of manner and cause are implied in the adverbial sentences below—likeness, relation, intensity, proportion, effect; reason, condition, concession.

The upright man speaks as he thinks. As a man lives so will he die. The man who is contented is as happy as if he possessed all the treasures of the world. In summer it sometimes thunders, so that the very windows rattle. In January 1830, it was so cold that Lake Constance was frozen over. The stenographer must write as fast as a man can speak. Death spares the rich as little as he forgets the poor. The higher a man rises, the deeper he can fall. A bird flies swifter than a horse can run. The ostrich is unable to fly, because it has not wings in proportion to its body. Fishes have no voice, because they have no lungs. Since the barometer rises the weather will probably soon clear up. The boy cannot write, because he has injured his hand. Learn while you are young, so that you may get forward in the world. We manure the fields, in order that they may become fruitful. God is ever present, although we never see him. Insects are useful notwithstanding they often do injury to the plants. Many sorrows are benefits. Unless you obey you will be punished.

[101. Form ten complex sentences containing adverbial sentences of time, and as many containing adverbial sentences of place, manner, and cause.]

[102. Form two complex sentences to exemplify each of the particular relations of time, place, manner, and cause.]

✓ 103. Analyze the complex sentences given below according to the model.

(N.B.—These sentences may be parsed as well, according to the model given in the Grammar.)

Sentence.	Kind of Sentence.	Subject.	Predicate.	Object.	Extension.
<i>a</i> Can the husbandman look forward with confidence to the increase,	Prin. sent.	The husbandman	can look forward		with confidence to the increase
<i>b</i> who has the promise of God	Adj. sent. to <i>a</i> .	who	has	the promise of God
<i>c</i> that seed-time and harvest shall not fail.	Noun-sent. to <i>b</i> .	[that] seed-time and harvest	shall not fail.

Christian charity is friendship expanded, like the face of the sun when it mounts above the eastern hills. He needs strong arms who is to swim against the stream. An honourable friend of mine, who is now, I believe,

near me—a gentleman to whom I never can on any occasion refer without feelings of respect, and, on this subject, without feelings of the most grateful homage; a gentleman, whose abilities upon this occasion, as upon some former ones, are not intrusted merely to the perishable eloquence of the day, but will live to be the admiration of that hour when all of us are mute, and most of us forgotten; that honourable gentleman has told you that prudence, the first of virtues, never can be used in the cause of vice.

After these appear'd

A crew, who, under names of old renown,
Osiris, Isis, Orus, and their train,
With monstrous shapes and sorceries abused
Fanatic Egypt and her priests, to seek
Their wandering gods disguised in brutish forms
Rather than human.

His spear, to equal which the tallest pine
Hewn on Norwegian hills to be the mast
Of some great ammiral were but a wand,
He walked with, to support uneasy steps
Over the burning marl.

High on a throne of royal state, which far
Outshone the wealth of Ormus and of Ind,
Or where the gorgeous East, with richest hand,
Showers on her kings barbaric pearl and gold,
Satan exalted sat, by merit raised
To that bad eminence.

He scarce had finished when such murmur filled
Th' assembly, as when hollow rocks retain
The sound of blustering winds, which all night long
Had roused the sea.

On she came, with a cloud of canvas,
Right against the wind that blew
Until the eye could distinguish
The faces of the crew.

Sweet was her breath as the breath of kine that feed in the meadows.

We sat within the farm-house old,
Whose windows, looking o'er the bay,
Gave to the sea-breeze, damp and cold,
An easy entrance night and day.

VI. OF THE COMPOUND SENTENCE.

104. Point out all the co-ordinate sentences in the following examples, and determine whether they are of the copulative, disjunctive, adversative, or causative (illative) class:—

Elder-berries are ripe at this season, and an excellent domestic wine is made from them. I hope we shall have another good day to-morrow, for the

clouds are red in the west.* The brooks are become dry and the ground is parched. Hazel-nuts grow profusely in some parts of this country, but they are in much greater demand than our produce will supply. Walnut-trees are fine ornaments to farms, and they are of great utility also. Just give me liberty to speak, and I will come to an explanation with you. He looked at her sorrowfully, but without manifesting either vexation or surprise.

The vine still clings to the mouldering wall,

* But at every gust the dead leaves fall.

The clergy were much displeased at the fashion, and one clergyman is said to have preached a sermon against it. Much silver was coined in Henry the First's time, but little gold, and no copper was used. The castles were very large, but there was little room for comforts. The boat sank and they were all drowned. He was a bad man, therefore he was not respected by his subjects. The dying king begged to be attended by his confessor, but she denied him even this comfort. Through faith we understand that the world was made by the word of God, so that things which are seen are not made of things that do appear. War is attended with desolating effects, for it is confessedly the scourge of our angry passions. The life of the queen bee seems to be all enjoyment, yet it is only an idle life.

Take the instant way,

For honour travels in a strait so narrow,
Where one but goes abreast.

Down the broad vale of tears afar,

The spectral camp is fled;

Faith shineth as a morning star,

Our ghastly fears are dead.

He arrived at the right moment, or I should have been lost. William was a doughty champion, or England would not have been conquered.

Go on, go on, thy onward way

Leads up to light,

The morning now begins to grey,

Anon the cheering beams of day

Shall chase the night.

The day is cold, and dark, and dreary;

It rains, and the wind is never weary;

The vine still clings to the mouldering wall,

And at every gust the dead leaves fall,

And the day is dark and dreary.

105. Point out all the contracted sentences in the following passages, and show in what part of the sentence the contraction takes place:—

The action began at five minutes past ten, and was general by eleven. The veil of shadow, as it shifts, has glanced upon adoring souls, and at its touch cast down a fresh multitude to kneel. The Jews would not tread upon the smallest piece of paper in their way, but took it up, for possibly, say they, the name of God may be on it. The faculty of imagination is the great spring of human activity, and the principal source of human improvement.

Weak is the will of man, his judgment blind;
 Remembrance persecutes and hope betrays;
 Heavy is woe; and joy for human kind
 A mournful thing, so transient is the blaze.

With a slow and noiseless footstep,
 Comes that messenger divine,
 Takes the vacant chair beside me,
 Lays her gentle hand in mine.

Birds seek their nests; the ox, horse, and other domestic animals steep
 around us. The richest dress that human art can invent, the finest decorations,
 the most pompous equipage, the most superb ornaments in the
 palaces of kings vanish and sink to nothing when compared with the beauty
 of nature. Every man has at times in his mind the ideal of what he should
 be, but is not.

N 106. Analyze the following miscellaneous sentences:—

The Christian religion, once here, cannot again pass away; in one or
 other form it will endure through all time; as in Scripture, so also in the
 heart of man, is written, "The gates of hell shall not prevail against it."

The state of the world is such, and so much depends on action, that
 everything seems to say aloud to every man, "Do something, do it,
 do it!"

Flowers form one of the first delights of early age, and they have proved
 a source of recreation to the most profound philosophers.

Gratitude consists in an equal return of benefits if we are able, of thanks
 if we are not; which thanks, therefore, must always rise in proportion as the
 benefits received are great, and the receiver incapable of making any other
 sort of requital.

The downfall of Buonaparte is an impressive lesson to ambition, and affords
 a striking illustration of the inevitable tendency of that passion to bring to
 ruin the power and the greatness which it seeks so madly to increase.

There is a time in every man's education when he arrives at the conviction
 that envy is ignorance; that imitation is suicide; that he must take
 himself for better, for worse, as his portion; that though the wide universe
 is full of good, no kernel of nourishing corn can come to him but through
 his toil bestowed on that plot of ground which is given to him to till.

To prayer, repentance, and obedience due,
 Though but endeavoured with sincere intent,
 Mine ear shall not be slow, mine eye not shut;
 And I will place within them as a guide
 My umpire conscience, whom if they will hear,
 Light after light, well used, they shall attain,
 And to the end persisting, safe arrive.

Not a drum was heard, not a funeral note,
 As his corse to the rampart we hurried;
 Not a soldier discharged his farewell shot
 O'er the grave where our hero we buried.

Within a window'd niche of that high hall
 A late Brunswick's fated chieftain; he did not

That sound the first amid the festival,
 And caught its tone with Death's prophetic ear;
 And when they smiled because he deem'd it near,
 His heart more truly knew that peal too well
 Which stretch'd his father on a bloody bier,
 And roused the vengeance blood alone could quell;
 He rush'd into the field, and, foremost fighting, fell!
 Where barbarous hordes on Scythian mountains roam.
 Truth, Mercy, Freedom, yet shall find a home;
 Where'er degraded nature bleeds and pines,
 From Guinea's coast to Sabir's dreary mines,
 Truth shall pervade the unfathom'd darkness there.
 And light the dreadful features of despair.
 Hark! the stern captive spurns his heavy load,
 And asks the image back that Heaven bestowed;
 Fierce in his eye the fire of valour burns,
 And, as the slave departs, the man returns.

'Tis pleasant by the cheerful hearth to hear
 Of tempests, and the dangers of the deep,
 And pause at times, and feel that we are safe;
 Then listen to the perilous tale again,
 And with an eager and suspended soul,
 Woo terror to delight us.

I come, I come! ye have call'd me long;
 I come o'er the mountains with light and song
 Ye may trace my step o'er the waking earth,
 By the winds which tell of the violet's birth—
 By the primrose stars in the shadowy grass
 By the green leaves opening as I pass.

A nightingale, that all day long,
 Had cheered the village with his song,
 Nor yet at eve his note suspended,
 Nor yet when eventide was ended,
 Began to feel, as well he might,
 The keen demands of appetite;
 When, looking eagerly around,
 He spied far off, upon the ground,
 A something shining in the dark,
 And knew the glow-worm by his spark.

Darken'd so, yet shone
 Above them all th' Archangel; but his face
 Deep scars of thunder had intrench'd, and care
 Sat on his faded cheek, but under brows
 Of dauntless courage and considerate pride
 Waiting revenge: cruel his eye, but cast
 Signs of remorse and passion to behold
 The fellows of his crime, the followers rather,
 Far other once beheld in bliss, condemned
 For ever now to have their lot in pain.

He now prepared
 To speak : whereat their doubled ranks they bend
 From wing to wing, and half-enclōse him round
 With all his peers : attention held them mute.
 Thrice he assayed ; and thrice, in spite of scorn,
 Tears, such as angels weep, burst forth : at last
 Words, interwoven with sighs, found out their way.

As bees
 In spring-time, when the sun with Taurus rides,
 Pour forth their populous youth about the hive
 In clusters ; they among fresh dews and flowers
 Fly to and fro, or on the smoothed plank,
 The superb of their straw-built citadel,
 New-rubbed with balm expatiate, and confer
 Their state affairs ; so thick the airy crowd
 Swarmed and were straitened ; till, the signal given,
 Behold a wonder ! they but now who seem'd
 In bigness to surpass earth's giant sons,
 Now less than smallest dwarfs, in narrow room
 Throng numberless.

PART IV.

EXERCISES ON THE LAWS OF SYNTAX.

I. FUNDAMENTAL LAWS.

107. Point out all the predicative relations which occur in the following passages :—

Manual labour, though an unavoidable duty, though designed as a blessing, and naturally both a pleasure and a dignity, is often abused, till, by its terrible excess, it becomes really a punishment and a curse. It is only a proper amount of work that is a blessing. Too much of it wears out the body before its time—cripples the mind, debases the soul, blunts the senses, and chills the affections. It makes a man a spinning-jenny or a ploughing-machine, and not “ a being of large discourse, that looks before and after.” He ceases to be a man, and becomes a thing.

Who shall say what work and works this England has yet to do? For what purpose this land of Britain was created, set like a jewel in the encircling blue of ocean ; and this tribe of Saxons, fashioned in the depths of time “ on the shores of the Black Sea,” or elsewhere, “ out of Harzgebirgo rock,” or whatever other material, was sent travelling hitherward, no man can say ; it was for a work, and for works, incapable of announcement in words. Thou seest them there ; part of them stand done, and visible to the eye ; even these thou canst not name ; how much less the others, still matter of prophecy only !

108. Correct the errors in the use of subject and predicate which occur in the following examples :—

Many of the advantages we now possess dies with us, but virtue is immortal.

One of my most intimate friends were present when the circumstance occurred.

You, whom I loved beyond all others, was my strongest opponent. The child said imploringly, Thou will not leave me, mother. *Quest.* Who are going for a walk to-day? *Ans.* John and me. Thou, my friend, were in great danger of thy life. One only of all the flock were missing when he arrived. The whole series were completed in about six months. The building of so many magnificent edifices were very expensive. Part of the plans are completed. They are very happy in each other's society.

109. Point out the objective relations which occur in the following passages :—

The great principle of human satisfaction is engagement. It is a most just distinction, which the late Mr. Tucker has dwelt upon so largely in his works, between pleasures in which we are passive, and pleasures in which we are active. And I believe every attentive observer of human life will assent to this position, that however grateful the sensations may occasionally be in which we are passive, it is not these, but the latter class of our pleasures, which constitutes satisfaction, which supply that regular stream of moderate and miscellaneous enjoyments in which happiness, as distinguished from voluptuousness, consists.

There is no phenomenon in nature more beautiful and splendid than the rising sun. The richest dress that human art can invent, the finest decorations, the most pompous equipage, the most superb ornaments in the palaces of kings, vanish and sink to nothing when compared with this beauty of nature. The sun appears with all the splendour of majesty, rising higher and higher, and the earth assumes a new aspect. Every creature rejoices, and seems to receive a new life. The birds, with songs of joy, salute the source of light and day, every animal begins to move, and all feel themselves animated with new strength and spirit.

110. Correct the errors, in relation to the objective case, which occur in the following sentences :—

Between you and I, the whole plan is absurd. He gave assurance of his reformation to all his friends, relations, and they who took any interest in his welfare. William gave you and I a full description of his interview. Will thee come to-morrow, Jamie? Them books must be removed immediately. Charles and me were very glad to accept your kind invitation. Her and I were both in the room at the time.

111. Point out all the attributive relations in the following passages :—

That man, by merely measuring the moon's apparent distance from a star, with a little portable instrument held in his hand, and applied to his eye, even with so unstable a footing as the deck of a ship, shall say positively within five miles, where he is, on a boundless ocean, cannot but appear to persons ignorant of physical astronomy an approach to the miraculous. Yet

the alternatives of life and death, wealth and ruin, are daily and hourly staked with perfect confidence on these marvellous computations, which might almost seem to have been devised on purpose to show how closely the extremes of speculative refinement and practical utility can be brought to approximate.

More than half my boys never saw the sea, and never were in London, and it is surprising how the first of these disadvantages interferes with their understanding much of the ancient poetry, while the other keeps the range of their ideas in an exceedingly narrow compass.

II. SPECIAL RULES OF SYNTAX.

112. Correct the errors which occur in the following passages, in relation to the subject and predicate :—

John and Mary comes to school every day from a long distance.

Morning or evening are the best time for study.

The whole army were defeated and fled.

Neither Napoleon nor Wellington were aware of what had occurred the previous night.

The swallow, the martin, and the redbreast, is considered to be the most innocent of birds.

Have not Homer or Virgil been the especial favourites of every age?

Have not Milton and Shakspeare been considered the two greatest English poets?

The school were to break up on the 20th.

The whole school was rambling about the common all the afternoon.

He and I goes to market every day.

You and Samuel was very hungry during the performance.

113. The nominative case is usually the subject to a finite verb; point out the nominatives in the following sentences which have no finite verb after them :—

God, from the mount of Sinai, whose grey top
Shall tremble, He descending will Himself
Ordain their laws.

For me, scarce hoping to attain that rest,
Always from port withheld, always distress'd;
The howling winds drive devious, tempest-toss'd,
Sails rent, seams opening wide, and compass lost.

Everything being right, I shall start to-morrow morning.

Work, work, my boy, be not afraid;
Look labour boldly in the face.

Beauteous isle and plenteous,
What though in thy atmosphere
Float not the taintless luxury of light!

Not yet enslaved, nor wholly vile,
O Albion! O, my mother isle!
Thy valleys, fair as Eden's bowers,
Glitter green with sunny show'ers.

114. Point out all the cases of apposition in the following sentences, and correct any that are wrongly written :—

Whang the miller was very avaricious.

After the short usurpation of his cousin Stephen, Henry II. succeeded his grandfather.

The abuses of John's government caused that combination of the Barons, which extorted Magna Charta—the basis of English liberty. Hence sprang the numerous Italian republics, Venice, Genoa, Florence, and others.

The person who called on you yesterday was me.

This is a work of Milton's, the great English poet.

It was him who represented the case so badly.

It was her who took away the book that I was reading.

Ho, the wisest of his race, stood near, and observed the folly of his brethren, the Arabs.

115. Correct the errors in relation to the use of the possessive case, which occur in the following passages :—

The childrens' supper is nearly ready.

John's and Mary's shares are smaller than the rest. His nose is very much like that of my father's. That wife of my uncle's is always scolding her servants.

116. Classify the objective cases in the following passages, according as they follow transitive, intransitive, or passive verbs; and show which of them are indirect objects :—

Navigation is an art so nice and complicated, that it requires the ingenuity as well as the experience of many ages to bring it to any degree of perfection. The fish we caught yesterday weighed six pounds. Some horses can run a mile a minute. Yesterday I was taken over the gardens, and shown the whole house. Just as we were going out we were asked the way to the church. Render unto Caesar the things that are Caesar's, and to God the things that are God's. Our master taught us geography with great skill. We watched three hours on the beach, but could see nothing of the vessel. Will you be so good as to lend me half-a-crown.

Then sang Moses this song unto the Lord, and spake, saying; I will sing unto the Lord, for He hath triumphed gloriously; the horse and his rider hath He thrown into the sea.

117. Correct the following errors in the use of the relative pronoun, and give the reason for each correction :—

Whom do you think I am? Who were you speaking of just now? I do not know who you profess to be. Whosoever he may select, I shall be quite content. I have no idea who he means to put in my place.

118. Point out below all the instances of verbs used absolutely.

There were a good number, say twenty, present.

We went a good distance farther, suppose half a mile. Taking the count

at random, I should say that there were fifty vessels in sight. Speaking accurately, we were only three and a half minutes in the room. To speak distinctly, I do not wish your company any longer.

119. Correct errors of any kind in the following examples :—

There is, in fact, no houses whatever on one side of the street. Nothing but grave and serious studies delight him.

In the observance of the laws consists the stability and welfare of the kingdom.

These are the men ~~which~~ we select for our companions.

Will any one bring me ~~their~~ books? These kind of potatoes are the best grown. Those sort of peas are very productive.

Has either of your three friends arrived?

Each of them shall be rewarded in their turn.

Whom do you think it is?

I dare not to solicit any favour of him.

You need not to go so hastily.

120.

She always appears very amiably.

If you wish to be healthy, live conformable to the rules of prudence and moderation.

Agreeable to his promise, he came to me in the afternoon. I ascended an ~~exceeding~~ high mountain in Switzerland.

This one is more preferable than that.

I cannot run no farther. He won't give me none of his flowers. I will not forgive him neither this year nor next.

Have you ran home for the umbrella?

John has unfortunately broke his leg.

We have began dinner this hour ago.

PART V.

EXERCISES ON THE STRUCTURE OF WORDS.

PREFIXES.

121. Point out the prefixes in the following words, and give their exact meaning :—

Forewarn, extract, introduce, automaton, misuse, abstract, accede, amphibious, withstand, circumlocution, retrograde, epitaph, midway, election, oppose, anarchy, outdo, retain, supersede, subsequent, ascend, insatiable, postpone, propose, deviate, ignoble, prominent, emulcent, imminent, emigrate, colloquial, transpose, dissipate benevolent, bespeak, Antichristian.

122. Point out the prefixes below, give their meanings, and state from what language they are derived :—

Incursion, paradox, oblation, reprove, prolate, relate, eclipse, forbear, recollect, disintegrate, illicit, episcopacy, composure, deportment, apprehend, mishap, ashore, retrieve, protrude, archetype, suburb, invaluable, immense, prohibit, benefactor, euphony, hemisphere, anabaptist, accident, heterogeneous, hiped, retrospection, subterfuge, undone, besmear, coincident.

STRUCTURE OF NOUN.

123. Write out a list of ten noun roots, ten primary derivatives, ten secondary derivatives, and ten compound nouns.

124. Write primary derivatives (nouns) from the following roots, and explain what change has taken place :—

Bless, bite, feed, deal, set, sing, dog, wreath, prove, breathe, love, choose, bake, live, weave, bath, strive, speak, use.

125. Point out the affixes in the following Saxon derivatives, and state the meaning of each :—

Liar, drunkard, darling, hillock, brooklet, kingdom, horsemanship, whiteness, slavery, beggary, laughter, wedlock, manhood, hatchet, shovel, guide.

126. Point out the affixes in the following Latin and Greek derivatives, and state the meaning of each :—

Particle, animalcula, sponsor, executrix, aversion, condition, penitence, sophist, Jebusite, dignity, multitude, justice, condiment, candour, fissure, an export, an import, academician, royalist, fallacy, formula, globule, region, independence.

127. State from what language the following affixes are derived, and what they each imply :—

-ard, -ess, kin, -sor, -tor, -trix, -eer, -ist, -ling, -let, -lock, -tude, -ence, -ary, -sue, -el, -ness, -hood, -head, -ment, -isk, -cule.

128. Write out a list of twenty nouns signifying agent, ten diminutives; thirty denoting abstract ideas, and ten signifying instrument; and state from what language each is derived.

129. Determine which of the following words are original roots, which primary derivatives, which secondary derivatives, and which compound words, and put each in a list by itself :—

End, hopeless, stream, right, snuff, rest, goodness, life, character, ideal, world, sun, law, strife, distance, year, foremost, joy, fear, pleasure, parent, child, proud, full, cloth, night, morning, heaven, manhood, stem, people, tyrant.

STRUCTURE OF THE ADJECTIVE.

130. Give a list of twenty adjectives, which you would consider to be original roots.

131. Write primary derivatives (adjectives) from the following words:—

String, die, heal, heat, throw, wring, pride, save.

132. Point out the affixes in the following secondary derivatives, and put the meaning to each when they can be determined:—

Dusty, mountainous, verbose, fruitful, homeward, carboniferous, intelligent, imaginative, friendly, childlike, hopeless, handsome, witty, southern, blackish, sevenfold, earthen, edible, eatable.

133. Write out a list of twenty Saxon derivatives, and twenty Latin derivatives (adjectives), and state what the affix in each case implies.

STRUCTURE OF THE PRONOUN.

134. Which may be considered the original pronouns of the English language?

135. Give a list of the principal derived pronouns, and show what they are derived from.

STRUCTURE OF THE VERB.

136. Give a list of English root-verbs, with the past tense of each?

137. Give primary derivatives (verbs) from the following roots:—

Fall, rise, roll, strow, hound, rush, fly, drop, dream, breath, sit, lie, blood, rise, melt, wash, shake, glass, dry, cool.

138. Point out the affixes, if any, of the following words, and determine their meaning:—

Scatter, whiten, harden, imitate, clamber, prattle, exist, assent, linger, shuffle, bully, baptize, disturb, suspect, terminate, expedite, inhabit.

139. Give a list of twenty Saxon, twenty Latin, and five Greek derivatives (verbs); explain the force of the affix in each, or show where an affix is wanting.

STRUCTURE OF THE ADVERB.

140. Give a list of original adverbs, and of primary derivatives, showing from what the latter are derived.

141. In the following adverbs, point out the affixes and prefixes, and determine the meaning of each :—

Always, shortly, daily, likewise, abroad, betimes, heavenward, forward, adrift, before.

142. Give a list of twenty compound adverbs.

STRUCTURE OF THE PREPOSITION.

143. State which of the following prepositions are original, which derived, and which verbal :—

At, by, about, around, on, of, concerning, till, through, against, below, beyond, touching, during, up, with, except.

STRUCTURE OF THE CONJUNCTION.

144. State which of the following conjunctions are original, which derived, and which compound :—

And, either, or, neither, but, than, through, nevertheless, if, whether, even, since, although, moreover, seeing, since.

The teacher can now give out the more prominent words in each lesson to be explained according to the following model :—

REFRACTION.

Prefix.	Root.	Affix.
Re-, back.	frango, fractum, } break.	-tion, abs. idea.

Instead of giving the different derivatives under the Latin roots, I have thought it best that the pupil should have the exercise of combining the prefixes and affixes with the root, and thus discovering the etymology of words for himself.

VOCABULARY.

I. SAXON ROOTS.

Observation.—A great number of English words are derived from precisely corresponding Saxon words. Where the derivation is obvious, (as, smith, brother, tooth, &c., from smith, brother, toth, &c.,) the Saxon words are not given in the Vocabulary. The roots printed below are those which give origin to a number of English words, the derivation of which is more disguised.

SAXON NOUNS.

<i>Æcer, a field;</i> (Ger. Aker,) acre, God's-acre.	<i>Leag, field;</i> <i>Lea</i> , names of places in <i>ley</i> .
<i>Bana, death;</i> banè, baneful, bonbane.	<i>Magu, stomach;</i> (Ger. Magen,) maw.
<i>Bot, satisfaction;</i> to boot, bootless.	<i>Mere, lake;</i> (Ger. Meer,) <i>Mere</i> , names of places in <i>mere</i> .
<i>Cyn, race;</i> kin, kindred, kind.	<i>Næsse, promontary;</i> <i>Naze</i> , names of places in <i>ness</i> .
<i>Deor, animal;</i> (Ger. Thier,) deer. <i>Durham</i> .	<i>Rice, kingdom;</i> (Ger. Reich,) bishopric.
<i>Doel, part;</i> (Ger. Theil,) dole, deal, to deal.	<i>Sped, success;</i> speed, Godspeed.
<i>Dun, ahill;</i> downs; most proper names ending in <i>don</i> .	<i>Stede, station;</i> names of places in <i>stead</i> .
<i>Ea, eas, water;</i> island; many names of places in <i>ey</i> . <i>Ouse</i> .	<i>Stoc, } place;</i> names of places in <i>Stow, } stock and stow</i> .
<i>Feond, enemy;</i> (Ger. Feind,) fiend, fiendish.	<i>Sund, strait;</i> sound, Bomarsund.
<i>Fugal, bird;</i> (Ger. Vogel,) fowl, fowler, fowling-piece.	<i>Tid, time;</i> (Ger. Zeit,) tide, shrove-tide, (<i>time and tide</i> .)
<i>Geard, enclosure;</i> yard, garden.	<i>Wald, wood;</i> (Ger. Wald,) weald, wold, Walt-ham.
<i>Gorst, furze;</i> gorse, gooseberry.	<i>Weard, guard;</i> ward, warden.
<i>Ham, dwelling;</i> home, (Ger. Heim,) hamlet; names of places ending in <i>ham</i> .	<i>Wic, dwelling;</i> Wick, and names of places ending in <i>same</i> .
<i>Holm, island;</i> Holms, Axholm, &c.	<i>Wirt, root;</i> (Ger. Wurzel,) wort.
<i>Hund, dog;</i> (Ger. Hund,) hound, hunt.	<i>Thorp, village;</i> (Ger. Dorf,) names of places in <i>thorp</i> .
<i>Hythe, port;</i> Hythe, Rotherhythe.	<i>Wise, manner;</i> (Ger. Weise,) in no wise, leastways.
<i>Ing, meadow;</i> the Inga, names of places in <i>ing</i> .	<i>Wylen, slave;</i> villain.

SAXON VERBS.

Beordan, <i>to order</i> ; (Ger. bieten,) bid, beadle.	Hebban, <i>to lift</i> ; (Ger. heben,) nearh.
Beorgan, <i>to protect</i> ; (Ger. borgen,) burgh, borough.	Macian, <i>to make</i> ; (Ger. machen,) make, mackle.
Blæsan, <i>to blow</i> ; (Ger. blasen,) blast, bluster, blossom.	Mænan, <i>to think</i> ; (Ger. meinen,) mean, mind.
Bidan, <i>to wait</i> ; bide, abide, abode.	Mengan, <i>to mix</i> ; (Ger. mengen,) mingle, among.
Brucan, <i>to use</i> ; broker, to brook.	Metsian, <i>to feed</i> ; meat, mess.
Buan, <i>to cultivate</i> ; (Ger. bauen,) boor, neighbour.	Plifian, <i>to expose to danger</i> ; plight
Bugan, <i>to bow</i> ; (Ger. biegen,) bow, bough, bay, elbow.	Ræpan, <i>to bind</i> ; wrap, reap, rope.
Ceapian, <i>to buy</i> ; (Ger. kaufen,) cheap, chapman, chaffer, Cheapside, Chipping.	Reccan, <i>to care</i> ; to reck, reckless.
Cearcian, <i>to creak</i> ; cark, chatter, chirp. (Old Eng. chirke.)	Sceadan, <i>to divide</i> ; scot, scatter, shed, watershed.
Clypian, <i>to call</i> ; old Eng. yclept.	Sceiran, <i>to cut</i> ; shear, shears, share, sheer, ploughshare, sear, score.
Cunnian, <i>to search</i> ; to con, cunning, (Ger. kennen.)	Slehan, <i>to kill</i> ; (Ger. schlagen,) slay, slaughter, sleight, sly (clever in stroke.)
Cwellan, <i>to slay</i> ; quell, kill.	Suican, <i>to creep</i> ; sneak, snake.
Deman, <i>to judge</i> ; deem, doom.	Steorfan, <i>to die</i> ; starve, (Ger. sterben.)
Dragan, <i>to draw</i> ; drag, draught, (Ger. tragen.)	Stigan, <i>to ascend</i> ; (Ger. steigen,) stair, stage, storey, stirrup.
Drigan, <i>to dry</i> ; drought, drug, (Ger. trocken.)	Tellan, <i>to count</i> ; (Ger. zählen,) tell, tale.
Faran, <i>to go</i> ; fare, farewell, ferry, thoroughfare.	Teogan, <i>to draw</i> ; tug.
Fengan, <i>to catch</i> ; (Ger. fangen,) finger, fang.	Thincan, <i>to seem</i> ; methinks (it seems to me).
Frean, <i>to love</i> ; (Ger. freien,) friend.	Thringan, <i>to press</i> ; (Ger. dringen,) throng.
Frician, <i>to jump</i> ; freak, frog.	Wanian, <i>to fail</i> ; wane, wan.
Fullian, <i>to corrupt</i> ; foul, filth.	Wealden, <i>to govern</i> ; wield, Bretwalda, (Ger. Gewalt.)
Galan, <i>to sing</i> ; nightingale.	Wenan, <i>to think</i> ; wecn.
Gangen, <i>to go</i> ; gang, gungway, (Ger. gehen.)	Wenden, <i>to go</i> ; wend, went, wander, (Ger. wenden.)
Glewan, <i>to shine</i> ; glow, gleam, (Ger. glühen.)	Witan, <i>to know</i> ; wit, wot, wise, (Ger. wissen.)
Grafan, <i>to dig</i> ; (Ger. graben,) grave, engrave, groove.	Writhan, <i>to twist</i> ; wreath, writhe, wrath, wroth, wry.
Gripon, <i>to squeeze</i> ; (Ger. greifen,) gripe, grip.	Wreccan, <i>to revenge</i> ; wreak.
	Wurman, <i>to dwell</i> ; (Ger. wohnen,) wont.

SAXON ADJECTIVES.

Ær, <i>before</i> ; ere, ear's, orn.	Halig, <i>holy</i> ; (Ger. heilig,) Halidoun.
Bald, <i>brave</i> ; bold, Etheibold.	Rein, <i>clean</i> ; (Ger. rein,) rinse.
Eald, <i>old</i> ; elder, Alderman, Aldate.	Rude, <i>red</i> ; ruddy, Ruthin.
God, <i>good</i> ; gospel, godsend.	Soth, <i>true</i> ; sooth, soothsayer.
Hal, <i>round</i> ; whole, wholesome, hale.	

II. LATIN ROOTS—NOUNS.

- Ædes, a building; edifice.*
Ævum, an age; coeval.
Ager, a field; agriculture.
Anima, life; animal.
Animus, mind; magnanimous.
Annus, year; annual.
Aqua, water; aquatic.
Arma, weapons; armour.
Articulus, a little joint; article.
Auris, the ear; aurist.
Aurum, gold; auriferous.
Auster, south wind; Australia.
Avis, a bird; aviary, augur.
Barba, beard; barber.
Bellum, war; rebel, bellicose.
Brachium, the arm; bracelet.
Calor, heat; caloric.
Canis, a dog; canine.
Caput, the head; captain.
Carbo, coal; carbonic.
Carmen, song; charming.
Caro, flesh; carnal.
Calculus, a little stone; calculate.
Catena, chain; concatenate.
Causa, cause; excuse.
Centrum, middle; centripetal.
Centum, a hundred; century.
Charta, paper; card.
Civis, a citizen; civil.
Cælum, heaven; celestial.
Cor, heart; cordial.
Corpus, body; corporeal.
Crux, cross; crucify.
Culpa, fault; culpable.
Cura, care; curious.
Cutis, skin; cuticle.
Dens, tooth; dentist.
Deus, God; deity.
Dexter, the right hand; dexterous.
Dies, a day; diurnal.
Digitus, a finger; digit.
Domus, a house; domicile.
Equus, a horse; equestrian.
Exemplum, instance; example.
Fabula, a fable; fabulous.
Facies, the face; efface.
Fama, report; famous.
Femina, woman; female.
Ferrum, iron; farrier.
Filius, a son; filial.
Finis, end; final.
Flamma, flame; inflame.
Flos, flower; flourish.
Folium, leaf; foliage.
Forma, form; formation.
Frater, brother; fraternal.
Frons, forehead; frontispiece.
Fumus, smoke; fumigate.
Fundus, foundation; profound.
Gens, nation; gentile.
Globus, a sphere; globular.
Gradus, a step; grade.
Gratin, favour; ingratiate.
Grege, a flock; congregate.
Hæres, heir; hereditary.
Homo, man; human.
Hora, hour; horary.
Hortus, garden; horticulture.
Hospes, a guest; hospitable.
Ignis, fire; ignite.
Insula, island; insular.
Iter, journey; itinerate.
Jugum, yoke; subjugate.
Jus, right; justice.
Juvenis, a youth; juvenile.
Labor, labour; laborious.
Lac, milk; lactation.
Lapis, stone; lapidary.
Laus, praise; laudatory.
Liber, bark, book; library.
Libra, balance; equilibrium.
Limen, threshold; preliminary.
Linea, line; delineate.
Lingua, tongue; linguist.
Litera, letter; literal.
Locus, place; locate.
Luna, the moon; lunatic.
Lux, light; lucifer.
Luxus, luxury; luxuriate.
Macula, a spot; immaculate.
Magister, a master; magistrat.
Mamma, the breast; mammali.
Manus, the hand; manual.
Mare, the sea; marine.
Mars, the god of war; martial.
Mater, mother; maternal.

- Materies, *matter*; material.
 Mel, *honey*; mellifluous.
 Mens, *mind*; mental.
 Miles, *a soldier*; military.
 Minæ, *threat*; monaces.
 Modus, *manner*; mood.
 Mola, *mill*; meal.
 Moles, *mass*; demolish.
 Mons, *mountain*; promontory.
 Mors, *death*; immortal.
 Mos, *manner*; morals.
 Munus, *gift*; munificent.
 Negotium, *business*; negotiate.
 Nihil, *nothing*; annihilate.
 Nomen, *a name*; nominal.
 Nox, *night*; nocturnal.
 Numerus, *number*; numeration.
 Oculus, *the eye*; oculist.
 Os, *oris, mouth*; oral.
 Os, *ossis, bone*; ossify.
 Ovum, *egg*; oval.
 Pactus, *a treaty*; compact.
 Palma, *palm*; palmary.
 Pars, *a part*; partial.
 Pater, *a father*; paternal.
 Pax, *peace*; pacify.
 Pectus, *breast*; expectorate.
 Pes, *foot*; biped.
 Pilus (capillus), *hair*; pile, capillary.
 Piscis, *fish*; piscatory.
 Planta, *plant*; plantation.
 Plumbum, *lead*; plumber.
 Pœna, *punishment*; penal.
 Pondus, *weight*; pound.
 Populus, *people*; popular.
 Præda, *booty*; predacious.
 Pretium, *price*; precious.
 Puer, *boy*; puerile.
 Quies, *rest*; quiet.
 Radius, *spoke of wheel*; ray.
 Radix, *root*; radical.
 Rivus, *stream*; river.
 Robur, *strength*; robust.
 Rota, *wheel*; rotatory.
 Rus, *country*; rustic.
 Sal, *salt*; saline.
 Salus, *safety*; salvation.
 Sanguis, *blood*; sanguine.
 Sapor, *savour*; insipid.
 Seculum, *the age*; secular.
 Semen, *seed*; seminary.
 Signum, *sign*; signify.
 Sol, *sun*; solar.
 Somnus, *sleep*; somnambulist.
 Sors, *lot*; assort.
 Spatium, *space*; expatiate.
 Tabula, *table*; tabulate.
 Tempus, *time*; temporary.
 Terminus, *boundary*; exterminate.
 Terra, *the earth*; terrestrial.
 Testis, *witness*; attest.
 Umbra, *shadow*; umbrageous.
 Unda, *a wave*; inundate.
 Urbs, *city*; urbanity.
 Vacca, *cow*; vaccinate.
 Vapor, *steam*; evaporate.
 Vas, *a vessel*; vascular.
 Velum, *veil*; revelation.
 Vena, *vein*; venous.
 Verbum, *word*; verb.
 Vestis, *garment*; invest.
 Via, *way*; obvious.
 Vindex, *avenger*; vindicate.
 Vinum, *wine*; vintage.
 Vir, *a man*; virile.
 Virtus, *valour*; virtue.
 Vita, *life*; vitality.
 Vitium, *fault*; vice.
 Voluptas, *pleasure*; voluptuous.
 Votum, *vow*; votary.
 Vulgus, *common people*; vulgar.
 Vultus, *wound*; vulnerable.

LATIN VERBS.

- Æstimare, *value*; estimate.
 Ago (actus), *act*; transact.
 Amo, *love*; amatory.
 Aperio, *open*; aperture.
 Appello, *call*; appellation.
 Apto, *fit*; aptitude.
 Audio, *hear*; audible.
 Augere, *increase*; augment.
 Cado (casum), *fall*; accident.
 Credo (cassum), *cut*; incision.
 Cuno, *sing*; chant.
 Capio (captum), *take*; reception.
 Cedo (cessum), *go*; accede.
 Cerno (cretum), *perceive*; discern.
 Clamo, *call out*; exclaim.
 Claudio (clausum), *shut*; include.

- Colo (cultus), *till*; cultivate.
 Credo, *believe*; credit.
 Creo, *create*; creation.
 Cresco, *to grow*; increase.
 Criminor, *judge, accuse*; discriminate.
 Cumbo, *lie*; succumb.
 Curro (cursum), *rush*; occur.
 Dico (dictum), *say*; predict.
 Doceo (doctus), *teach*; doctor.
 Dolco, *grieve*; condole.
 Dono, *give*; donation.
 Dormio, *sleep*; dormouse.
 Duco, *lead*; conduct.
 Emo (emptus), *buy*; redeem.
 Eo (itum), *go*; exit.
 Experior (expertus), *try*; experiment.
 Facio (factus), *do*; effect.
 Fallo, *deceive*; fallacious.
 Fero (latus), *bear*; confer, translate.
 Fervoo, *boil*; fervent.
 Fido, *trust*; confide.
 Fingo (fictus), *frame*; fiction.
 Flecto (flexus), *bend*; flexible.
 Fluo, *flow*; fluid.
 Frango (fractus), *break*; fracture.
 Frico, *rub*; friction.
 Frigeo, *I am cold*; frigid.
 Fugio, *flee*; fugitive.
 Fundo (fusus), *pour*; diffuse.
 Gero (gestus), *bear*; belligerent.
 Gradior (gressus), *step*; congress.
 Habeo, *have*; habit.
 Hæreo, *stick*; adhere.
 Ignoro, *not to know*; ignorant.
 Imperio, *command*; imperious.
 Jaceo, *lie*; adjacent.
 Jacio, *cast*; eject.
 Judico, *judge*; adjudicate.
 Jungo, *join*; conjunction.
 Juro, *swear*; jury.
 Labor (lapsus), *slide*; relapse.
 Lædo (læsum), *strike*; collision.
 Lego, *send*; delegate.
 Lego (lectum), *choose*; elect.
 Levo, *raise*; lever.
 Libero, *to free*; liberate.
 Licco, *to be allowed*; license.
 Ligo, *to bind*; obligation.
 Linquo, *leave*; relinquish.
 Loquor, *speak*; eloquent.
 Ludo, *play*; prelude.
 Luo, *wash*; dilute.
 Mando, *commit to*; commend.
 Maneo, *remain*; mansion.
 Medeor, *heal*; remedy.
 Memini, *remember*; memory.
 Mercor, *buy*; merchant.
 Mergo (mersum), *plunge*; immerse.
 Mineo, *to project*; eminent.
 Miscro (mixus), *mix*; miscellaneous.
 Mitto, *send*; remit.
 Monco, *advise*; monitor.
 Mordeo, *bite*; remorse.
 Moveo (motus), *move*; motion.
 Nascor (natus), *to be born*; innate.
 Necto, *bind*; connect.
 Nego, *deny*; negation.
 Nocoo, *hurt*; noxious.
 Noseo (notus), *know*; denote.
 Nuncio, *make known*; announce.
 Opto, *wish*; optative.
 Orno, *adorn*; ornament.
 Pando, *to stretch*; expand.
 Pareo, *appear*; apparent.
 Pairo, *prepare*; repair.
 Pascor (pastum), *feed*; repast.
 Patior, *suffer*; patient.
 Pello (pulsus), *drive*; repel.
 Pendco, *hang*; depend.
 Peto, *seek*; petition.
 Placeo, *please*; placid.
 Placo, *appease*; placate.
 Plaudo, *clap*; applaud.
 Plecto, *twine*; complex.
 Plico, *fold*; complicated.
 Ploro, *implore*; deplore.
 Pono (positus), *place*; deposit.
 Porto, *carry*; import.
 Precor, *pray*; imprecate.
 Prehendo, *lay hold of*; apprehend.
 Premio (pressus), *press*; impress.
 Probo, *approve*; probation.
 Pungo, *prick*; pungent.
 Pargo, *cleanse*; purgatory.
 Puto, *think*; repute.
 Quæro, *seek*; query.
 Queror, *complain*; querulous.
 Rapio (raptus), *seize*; rapacious.
 Rego, *rule*; regent.
 Rideo, *laugh*; deride.
 Rigeo, *to be stiff*; rigid.
 Rumpo (ruptus), *break*; rupture.
 Salio (saltum), *leap*; assail.
 Scando, *climb*; ascend.

Scribo (scriptus), <i>write</i> ; transcribe.	Timeo, <i>fear</i> ; timid.
Seco, <i>cut</i> ; sect.	Tingo, <i>dye</i> ; tincture.
Sedeo, <i>sit</i> ; subside.	Tolero, <i>bear</i> ; tolerate.
Sentio, <i>feel</i> ; sensit <i>sensit</i> .	Tollo, <i>raise</i> ; extol.
Sequor, <i>follow</i> ; persecute.	Torreo, <i>roast</i> ; torrid.
Servio, <i>serve</i> ; servile.	Torqueo (tortus), <i>wrest</i> ; extort.
Servo, <i>keep</i> ; preservation.	Traho (tractus), <i>draw</i> ; attract.
Sisto, <i>stop</i> ; persist.	Tribuo, <i>bestow</i> ; attribute.
Soleo, <i>to be accusomed</i> ; insolent.	Trudo, <i>thrust</i> ; intrude.
Solve, <i>loose</i> ; resolve.	Tumeo, <i>swell</i> ; tumour.
Sono, <i>sound</i> ; consonant.	Utor (usus), <i>use</i> ; usefu!.
Specio (spectus), <i>see</i> ; inspect.	Vado, <i>go</i> ; evade.
Spiro, <i>breath</i> ; inspire.	Valeo, <i>prevail</i> ; valid.
Statuo, <i>appoint</i> ; constitute.	Veho, <i>carry</i> ; vehicle.
Sterno (stratus), <i>scatter</i> ; prostrate.	Venio (ventus), <i>come</i> ; advent.
Sto, <i>stand</i> ; station.	Verto, <i>turn</i> ; convert.
Stringo (strictus), <i>draw tight</i> ; strict.	Video (visum), <i>see</i> ; provide.
Sumo (sumptus), <i>take</i> ; assume.	Vinco (victus), <i>conquer</i> ; invincible.
Tango (tactus), <i>touch</i> ; intact.	Vivo, <i>live</i> ; vivify.
Temno, <i>despise</i> ; contemn.	Voco, <i>call</i> ; invoke.
Tendo, <i>stretch</i> ; attend.	Volo, <i>fly</i> ; volatile.
Teneo, <i>hold</i> ; tenacious.	Volvo, <i>roll</i> ; involve.
Terreo, <i>frighten</i> ; terrify.	Voro, <i>devour</i> ; voracious.
Texo, <i>weave</i> ; textile.	

LATIN ADJECTIVES.

Acer, <i>sharp</i> ; acid.	Fortis, <i>strong</i> ; fortify.
Æquus, <i>equal</i> ; equator.	Grandis, <i>great</i> ; aggrandise.
Albus, <i>white</i> ; albino.	Gravis, <i>heavy</i> ; gravity.
Alter, <i>another</i> ; alternate.	Inferus, <i>low</i> ; infernal.
Altus, <i>high</i> ; exalt.	Inferior, <i>lower</i> ; inferior.
Antiquus, <i>old</i> ; antique.	Internus, <i>inner</i> ; internal.
Asper, <i>rough</i> ; asperity.	Latus, <i>broad</i> ; oblate.
Bonus, <i>good</i> ; bounty.	Lentus, <i>slow</i> ; relent.
Brevis, <i>short</i> ; brief.	Longus, <i>long</i> ; longitude.
Cautus, <i>wary</i> ; cautious.	Malus, <i>evil</i> ; malefactor.
Cavus, <i>hollow</i> ; cavern.	Maturus, <i>ripe</i> ; mature.
Certus, <i>sure</i> ; certify.	Medius, <i>middle</i> ; mediator.
Coctus, <i>cooked</i> ; concoct.	Minor, <i>less</i> ; diminish.
Densus, <i>thick</i> ; dense.	Obscurus, <i>dark</i> ; obscure.
Dignus, <i>worthy</i> ; dignify.	Omnis, <i>all</i> ; omnipotent.
Dulcis, <i>sweet</i> ; dulcet.	Planus, <i>level</i> ; plain.
Durus, <i>hard</i> ; endure.	Plenus, <i>full</i> ; plenty.
Externus, <i>outward</i> ; external.	Plus, <i>more</i> ; plural.
Exterior, <i>outer</i> ; exterior.	Posterus, <i>last</i> ; posterity.
Extremus, <i>outermost</i> ; extreme.	Primus, <i>first</i> ; primary.
Facilis, <i>easy</i> ; facile.	Privus, <i>secret</i> ; private.
Felix, <i>happy</i> ; felicity.	Purus, <i>pure</i> ; purify.
Firmus, <i>strong</i> ; firm.	Qualis, <i>of what kind</i> ; quality.

Quantū, *how much*; quantity.
 Quot, *how many*; quotient.
 Rarus, *thin*; rare.
 Sacra, *sacred*; sacrament.
 Sanctus, *holy*; sanctify.
 Senus, *sound*; usage.
 Senex, *old*; senile.

Similis, *like*; similar.
 Solus, *alone*; solitude.
 Surdus, *deaf*; absurd.
 Tenuis, *thin*; attack.
 Triens, *three*; triennial.
 Vanius, *vain*; vaunt.
 Vetus, *old*; veteran.

III, GREEK ROOTS—NOUNS.

Aer (αἴρ), *the air*; aerial.
 Agogos (αἰγῶγος), *leader*; demagogues.
 Agon (αἰών), *contest*; antagonist.
 Angelos (αγγελος), *messenger*; angel.
 Anthos (ανθος), *flower*; polyanthus.
 Anthropos (ανθρωπος), *man*; philanthropy.
 Arctos (αρκτος), *bear*; arctic.
 Arithmos (αριθμος), *number*; arithmetic.
 Astron (αστρον), *star*; astronomy.
 Biblion (βιβλιον), *book*; bible.
 Bios (βιος), *life*; biography.
 Chole (χολη), *bile*; melancholy.
 Chronos (χρονος), *time*; chronology.
 Cosmos (κοσμος), *world*; cosmogony.
 Cratos (κρατος), *rule*; democrat.
 Daimon (δαιμων), *spirit*; demon.
 Demos (δημος), *people*; democrat.
 Doxa (δοξα), *opinion*; orthodox.
 Dogma (δογμα), *opinion*; dogmatic.
 Dunamis (δυναμις), *strength*; dynamics.
 Ethos (εθος), *manner*; ethics.
 Gamos (γαμος), *marriage*; polygamy.
 Ge (γη), *the earth*; geography.
 Genos (γενος), *kind*; heterogeneous.
 Glossa (γλωσσα), *tongue*; glossary.
 Gonia (γωνια), *corner*; diagonal.
 Gramma (γραμμα), *letter*; grammar.
 Haima (αιμα), *blood*; hemorrhage.
 Hairesis (αιεσις), *choosing*; heresy.
 Helios (ηλιος), *sun*; perihelion.
 Hemera (ημερα), *day*; ephemeral.
 Hippos (ιππος), *horse*; hippodrome.
 Hodos (οδος), *way*; period.
 Hudor (υδωρ), *water*; hydrostatics.
 Ichthys (ιχθυς), *a fish*; ichthyology.
 Kephalē (κεφαλη), *head*; cephalic.
 Kúklos (κυκλος), *circle*; cycle.

Laos (λαος), *people*, *city*.
 Latreia (λατρεια), *service*; idolater.
 Logos (λογος), *reason*; geology.
 Luus (λυσις), *loosing*; analysis.
 Martis (μαρτυρ), *witness*; martyr.
 Mathēma (μαθημα), *science*; mathematics.
 Metron (μετρον), *measure*; symmetry.
 Mētēr (μητηρ), *mother*; metropolis.
 Muthos (μυθος), *myth*; mythology.
 Naos (ναος), *ship*; nautical.
 Nēsos (νησος), *island*; Polynesia.
 Nomos (νομος), *law*; astronomy.
 Oikos (οικος), *house*; economy.
 Onoma (ονομα), *name*; synonyme.
 Ophthalmos (οφθαλμος), *eye*; ophthalmia.
 Organon (οργανον), *instrument*; organic.
 Ornis (ορνις), *bird*; ornithology.
 Pais (παις), *child*; paedagogue.
 Pathos (παθος), *feeling*; pathology.
 Petra (πετρα), *rock*; petrify.
 Phone (φωνη), *voice*; phonetics.
 Phos (φως), *light*; phosphorus.
 Phusis (φυσις), *nature*; physics.
 Pneuma (πνευμα), *wind*; pneumatics.
 Polemos (πολεμος), *war*; polemic.
 Polis (πολις), *city*; politics.
 Potamos (ποταμος), *river*; hippopotamus.
 Pous (πους), *foot*; antipodis.
 Psyche (ψυχη), *soul*; psychology.
 Pur (πυρ), *fire*; pyramid.
 Sphaira (σφαира), *ball*; sphere.
 Stasis (στασις), *standing*; apostasy.
 Strophe (στροφη), *turning*; apostrophe.
 Taphos (ταφος), *tomb*; epitaph.
 Techne (τεχνη), *art*; technical.

VOCABULARY.

Theos (Θεός), *God*; theology.
 Thesis (θεσις), *placing*; parenthesis.
 Topos (τοπος), *place*; topography.

Typos (τυπος), *stamp*; *type*.
 Zoon (ζωον), *animal*; zoology.

GREEK VERBS.

Archo (αρχω), *to command*; monarch.
 Ballo (βάλλω), *to throw*; symbol.
 Calupto (καλυπτω), *cover*; Apocalypso.
 Gignosko (γινωσκω), *know*; prognostic.
 Grapho (γραφω), *write*; autograph.
 Miso (μισω), *hate*; misanthropist.
 Optomai (οπτομαι), *see*; optics.
 Orno (ορω), *see*; panorama.

Phaino (φαίνω), *appear*; phantom.
 Phaino (φαινω), *show*; phenomenon.
 Poieo (ποιεω), *make*; poetry.
 Psallo (ψάλλω), *sing*; psalm.
 Skopeo (σκοπεω), *see*; telescope.
 Stello (στελλω), *send*; apostle.
 Tasso (τασσω), *arrange*; ~~tax~~.
 Theaomai (θεαομαι), *see*; theatro-
 Temno (τεμνω), *cut*; atom.
 Trepo (τρεπω), *turn*; tropics.

GREEK ADJECTIVES.

Autos (αυτος), *self*; autobiography.
 Calos (καλος), *beautiful*; calligraphy.
 Gumnos (γυμνος), *naked*; gymnastics.
 Heteros (ετερος), *another*; heterogene-
 nous.
 Hieros (ιερος), *sacred*; hierarchy.
 Isos (ισος), *equal*; isosceles.
 Monos (μονος), *alone*; monotonous.
 Necros (νεκρος), *dead*; necropolis.
 Neos (νεος), *new*; neology.

Oligos (ολιγος), *few*; oligarchy.
 Orthos (ορθος), *right*; orthodox.
 Oxys (οξυς), *sharp*; oxygen.
 Philos (φιλος), *friendly*; philanthro-
 pist.
 Polus (πολυς), *many*; polygon.
 Protos (πρωτος), *first*; prototype.
 Thermos (θερμος), *warm*; thermo-
 meter.

The following are a few specimens of the French words, which have been the medium of introducing the original Latin roots in English.

Cheval (Lat. caballus), *horse*; chevalier, chivalry, cavalry.
 Charte (Lat. carta), *paper*; chart, charter, cartoon, cartouch.
 Campagne (Lat. campus), *field*; camp, campaign, champaign.
 Parler, *to speak*; parley, Parliament.

Chanter (Lat. cano), *sing*; chant, gu-
 chant, enchanting.
 Féodalité (Lat. fidelitas), *feudal*; fealty.
 Merveille (Lat. mirabile), *wonder*,
 marvel, marvellous.
 Souverain (Lat. supernus), *sovereign*,
 sovereignty.
 Voir (Lat. video), *see*; view.

